

A NATURALISTIC INQUIRY OF A DISTANCE LEARNING UNIVERSITY TESOL
PROGRAM FOR IN-SERVICE TEACHERS

By

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Abstract

In this naturalistic inquiry, I explore a professional development program which provided Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) graduate coursework from a university in Northeast Kansas to in-service teachers in Southwest Kansas through distance learning. Data sources included interviews, participant observation, and document and records review. Interviews were conducted with 63 participants, including program directors, instructors, and evaluation team members at the university in Northeast Kansas and in-service teachers, project coordinators, school administrators, and English as a second language coordinators in Southwest Kansas. Data analysis conducted through the constant comparative method indicate five broad areas of interest; the context of the university, the context of Southwest Kansas, the Kansas context, KPD courses, and concepts of success. By providing a nuanced narrative of the complexities, contradictions, and constraints of the program I explore how the program is negotiated as the participants interact with each other, their educational contexts, and communities. The results of the study contribute to the growing body of knowledge about the professional development of teachers and the role of universities and districts in this effort.

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CHAPTER ONE: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND PROJECT GOALS

Introduction

The number of English Learners (ELs) in schools in the United States is increasing. Data from the U.S. Department of Education (2015) indicate the percentage of public school students in the United States who were ELs was higher in 2012 -2013 (9.2 percent) than in 2002-2003 (8.7 percent). Notably the percentage of ELs increased in all but 11 states, with the largest percentage increase between 2002-2003 and 2012-2013 occurring in Kansas (with a difference of 4.9 percent). Schools and teachers are faced with classrooms where an increasing number of students speak little or no English, and although English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) programs have developed throughout pre-kindergarten through 12th grade (preK-12) classrooms, much of the responsibility of supporting ELs is placed with mainstream classroom teachers who are generally unprepared to teach ELs. Few have taken classes about how to address the special needs of ELs and even fewer complete an ESOL endorsement.

In response to the increasing linguistic and cultural diversity in classrooms, universities have developed teacher education programs for in-service teachers. These programs provide professional development (PD) and ESOL training to practicing teachers with the goal of making instruction to ELs more effective. The courses, which include concepts, theories, and methods related to ESOL, are intended to prepare teachers to modify their classroom practices to better address the needs of ELs. This study investigates one such program, the Kansas Professional Development (KPD) program.

KPD was a federally funded grant awarded to a university in the Midwest to provide PD to in-service teachers at nine school districts in Southwest Kansas. The project offered tuition assistance and support for in-service teachers to take graduate level courses that would lead to

the completion of an ESOL endorsement. The graduate courses offered by the university were delivered in a distance-learning format, which means that much of the interaction took place through interactive video conferencing or through online courses.

An in-depth study of a teacher education program may help us to understand the various perspectives of teachers and university partners in teacher education programs. We know little about the partnerships between universities and school districts and how various stakeholders conceptualize these partnerships. Studies of partnerships are often one-sided, either from the perspectives of the universities or the teachers. Rarely, do they examine both sides. Furthermore, much of the research on these partnerships are quantitative and do not describe the context, the meaning the participants give to the experiences, or the process that leads to the outcomes. These studies generally do not focus on university partnerships with rural areas. Thus, a qualitative study of the KPD project, focusing on the partnerships between universities and school districts and situated in the context of the school, university, and state can make an important contribution to understanding teacher education programs.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explain and describe in detail the process by which a PD program involving stakeholders from a university and nine school districts attempted to achieve its stated objectives to prepare in-service teachers to meet the needs of ELs through a series of graduate level courses. By providing a nuanced narrative of the complexities, contradictions, and constraints of such a program, in this qualitative case study, I explore the relationships among the university instructors, program directors, evaluation team members, project coordinators, school administrators, ESOL coordinators, and teachers. Furthermore, I consider the KPD program in the context of the university, districts in Southwest Kansas, and the state of Kansas to

understand how factors outside of the program shape stakeholders' experiences and perceptions of success.

Research Questions

Given the stated purpose, the following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the nature and effect of the Kansas Professional Development (KPD) program as experienced, shaped, and perceived by university instructors, program directors, evaluation team members, project coordinators, school administrators, ESOL coordinators, and in-service teachers?
2. What do stakeholder experiences indicate about the overall success of KPD?
3. What can be learned through an in-depth understanding of the experiences and perspectives of the stakeholders?

By using interview data and drawing from ethnographic traditions, the intent of the research was to understand and present an “emic” perspective of the KPD program according to those involved. Through the telling of their experiences and perspectives, often by using their own words, I document their views and facilitate a deeper understanding of KPD.

Definition of Key Concepts

The following terms carry particular meanings within the education field and I have made principled decisions to use them over other terms in the present study. In this section, I provide a brief explanation about these terms and discuss why I selected them for this dissertation.

English Learners (ELs)

In the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) field, several terms are used to refer to students whose first language is not English but who are in the process of learning English. The terms “Limited English Proficient” (LEP), “Culturally and Linguistically

Diverse” (CLD), “English Language Learners” (ELLs), “Emerging Bilingual” (EB), and “English as Second Language students” (ESLs) emphasize various aspects of the learners. For example, the term “LEP” describes students in terms of the language they lack and not in terms of the language skills they do possess, and “CLD” stresses the interplay of cultural and language in the students’ education. I use the term “ELs” in this study to mirror recent trends in TESOL and to avoid deficit labels of students. Though research participants often used the terms “ELL” or “ESL students” throughout the interviews, I will use the term “ELs,” except in the cases where I cite sources or represent research participants’ speech, and in those circumstances, I will mirror the terminology choices of the participants.

Mainstream Classroom

Classrooms with both ELs and English-speaking students are referred to as “mainstream classrooms.” Cochran (2002) explains that “what all mainstreaming efforts have in common is the commitment to bringing language minority students into regular, integrated content classes with their native-English-speaking peers” (p. 1). These classrooms are content-based classrooms where ELs learn in interaction with their peers, both second language learners and English-speaking students. In this study I use the term “mainstream classrooms” to highlight that these classrooms typically follow the cultural patterns of the mainstream or dominant culture. In some school settings, ESOL programs, courses, and teachers are commonly outside the mainstream of schools and are on the social, academic, and spatial periphery of the mainstream (Gitlin, Buendía, Crosland, & Doumbia, 2003; Nieto, 2002). While the term “mainstream” is somewhat problematic as it is used to label students by how they conform to mainstream standards, it is used frequently within the TESOL field to refer to a classroom where the teacher provides the core curriculum to ELs.

Classroom teachers

ELs are served by several types of educators in the public school system. The term “classroom teachers” refers to teachers who educate ELs alongside English-speaking students in mainstream classrooms. Some mainstream classroom teachers have added an ESOL endorsement to their elementary or secondary teaching license, which means they have completed state requirements and have been deemed “highly qualified” to teach ELs. The ESOL endorsement is supposed to indicate that the classroom teacher has learned strategies to provide language support services to ELs within the mainstream classroom. Ideally, ESOL-endorsed teachers modify the content and instruction in the classroom with the goal of teaching both academic content and English to ELs.

Teachers and Instructors

“Teachers” refers to the in-service teachers from Southwest Kansas who took the KPD courses. Those who provided the instruction for the KPD program are referred to as “instructors,” which includes both the TESOL faculty members and the one adjunct instructor.

ESOL Support Staff

The term “ESOL support staff” is used to refer to any school personnel, including ESOL teachers and ESOL paraeducators, whose primary focus is the education of ELs. An ESOL teacher is typically a licensed teacher who has completed an ESOL endorsement and works in collaboration with mainstream teachers to provide in-class or pull-out support for the ELs. ESOL paraeducators (also referred to as ESOL paraprofessionals) in the state of Kansas must have a high school diploma or a GED, complete 48 hours at an institution of higher education, have an associate’s degree, or pass a state approved assessment that assesses the ability to assist in instructing reading, writing, and mathematics (KSDE, 2007). By providing one-on-one tutoring

or assisting with instructional tasks, paraeducators provide support to the teachers in the instruction of ELs (KSDE, 2007). Bilingual ESOL paraeducators may provide academic support in the students' native languages and communicate with the students' families. In addition to the ESOL support staff, some districts have ESOL coordinators who support teachers in finding PD opportunities related to TESOL, report on the number of ELs and the services received, and coordinate other aspects of the ESOL support. The education of ELs varies among schools and districts, and there is variation in how mainstream classroom teachers, ESOL teachers, and ESOL paraeducators work together.

Significance of Study Related to Teacher Education Programs

Understanding the nature and effects of the KPD program from the perspectives of multiple stakeholders will provide insight into the strengths and challenges of a university program that has the intended goal of educating in-service teachers to better educate ELs. University programs like KPD have been developed to help educate teachers, but rarely are they the subject of study. Instead, research focuses on teachers' attitudes toward ELs and their education (Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Reeves, 2006; Walker et al., 2004; Youngs & Youngs, 2001), changes in teachers' attitudes or beliefs with more ESOL training (Peter, Markham, & Frey, 2012), changes in teachers' practices with more education (Byrnes, Kiger, & Manning, 1997; Youngs & Youngs, 2001), and the impact of training on student achievement (He, Prater, & Steed, 2011). However, what is missing in research is how different participants understand and view PD opportunities that provide ESOL training to in-service teachers. The goal of this study is to understand how these stakeholders experienced KPD given their particular contexts. By exploring and documenting the beliefs and needs of those involved in the process of a teacher education program, I hope to provide an understanding of how PD programs such as these can be

designed and implemented to better serve the needs of the university, teachers, school districts, and ELs.

Potential Contributions and Limitations

This study attempts to go beyond a simple analysis of one group's understanding of a teacher education program. Instead, it acknowledges that those involved in educational programs may hold different perspectives of the same phenomena because of their position, situation, and particular needs. Stakeholders participate in the educational program with different goals and expectations, and they determine the effectiveness of the program based on their unique participation and position in the program. With this case study, I explore the benefits and challenges when stakeholders from different groups expressed similar or contrasting ideas about the KPD program. The perspectives of the stakeholders and the similarities and differences between these perspectives can provide insight into what teacher education programs must include to be effective.

Like all studies, this case study of the KPD project is not without limitations. The findings of the study may appear to have limited generalizability to other educational programs that seek to provide ESOL training to in-service teachers. On one hand, this particular case focuses on a single educational program in a particular context with stakeholders that are unique to this program. On the other hand, generalizability in case studies is achieved when the researcher helps the reader transfer new understanding to a similar situation (Erickson, 1986). Merriam (1998) explains, "It is the reader, not the researcher, who determines what can apply to his or her context" (p. 179). Stake (1995) reinforces the point when he claims that readers make "naturalistic generalizations" by combining their own life experiences with the vicarious experience presented in the case study. I hope to follow the recommendations of Stake (1995)

and address this limitation of generalizability by including detailed accounts and rich data so readers can consider their own interpretations.

Dissertation Outline

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter One introduced the problem and outlined the goals of the study. In Chapter Two, I provide the context for this case study by reviewing relevant literature related to educational programs designed to meet the needs of ELs, types of PD approaches and their effectiveness, ESOL PD, and distance learning. Focusing on the research design and methods involved in this study, in Chapter Three, I highlight the characteristics of naturalistic inquiry that are relevant to the research design and provide an overview of KPD, the site of the research, the participants, data collection methods, and method of analysis. Chapter Four presents a discussion of the data collected in this study divided into five broad areas; the university, Southwest Kansas, Kansas context, KPD courses, and concepts of success. In Chapter Five I further analyze the findings of this study and link them to existing literature to highlight what can be learned through an in-depth understanding of the experiences and perspectives of the stakeholders in KPD. In this final chapter I also discuss the implications of these findings and explore topics to consider in future research.

CHAPTER TWO: PROVIDING CONTEXT THROUGH THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study is to understand the complex relationships among stakeholders who are involved in an interactive distance learning teacher education program in Kansas. In this qualitative case study I explore the perspectives of university instructors, program directors, and project coordinators who implement the program, and the teachers who participate in it. To understand the context of KPD, I also sought to understand the perspectives of ESOL coordinators, district administrators, and members of the evaluation team. As this study incorporates aspects of teacher education, PD opportunities including university partnerships, rural education, and interactive distance learning opportunities, the goal of this literature review is to place my research questions and study in the context of previous work related to these topics.

The literature reviewed in this section is organized into major themes related to ESOL education, the need for PD, characteristics of effective PD, ESOL PD, university and district partnerships, distance learning in rural areas, experiential knowledge. I start the literature review by showing that ELs need support in the classroom, and I demonstrate that mainstream teachers are often responsible for the education of ELs but rarely have sufficient training. I provide an overview of some of the PD models used to support in-service teachers and argue that sustained, ongoing opportunities are more effective than one-shot workshops. I also examine the role of districts in support of the PD of teachers with a focus on their involvement in district and university partnerships. This discussion continues with an overview of the knowledge and skills that researchers recommend for mainstream teachers when teaching ELs. I also examine ways that distance learning facilitates PD in rural communities. Lastly, I explore my experiential knowledge related to PD to the extent that it contributes to the conceptual underpinnings of this

study. Through this literature review, I highlight the characteristics of effective PD programs by which I will compare and contrast KPD and demonstrate how this study fills a gap in the literature and contributes to our understanding of PD programs.

ESOL Education

Court decisions and congressional legislation have influenced the education of ELs in the United States. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 declared in Title VI that no person participating in a program receiving federal assistance could be discriminated against on the basis of race, color, or national origin. In essence, this law stated that schools must provide services to ELs that were comparable to their English-dominant peers (Bérubé, 2000). As a result of this law, schools were required to provide language support services to ELs to allow them to benefit from educational programs. A few years later, in 1968, the Elementary and Secondary Education Title VII Bilingual Education Act allowed schools to provide instruction in students' primary language, and bilingual educational programs were developed throughout the country.

In *Lau v. Nichols* of 1974 parents of Chinese descent argued that public schools in San Francisco should teach basic skills in English to make the lessons meaningful or comprehensible to ELs. The Supreme Court agreed; the court decision essentially said that equal educational opportunity was not attained by providing all students with the same materials, instruction, and curriculum. Schools were required to take affirmative steps in helping students reach English language proficiency.

The Equal Educational Opportunities Act, also passed in 1974, declared that no state should deny equal educational opportunity by failing to “take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs” (§ 1703). “Appropriate action” was not defined, and so in 1974, the Office of Civil Rights (OCR)

formulated the *Lau* remedies which specified procedures to identify and evaluate the English of ELs, determine appropriate instructional treatments, decide when ELs were ready for mainstream, and determine minimum standards to be met by teachers of ELs (Bérubé, 2000). The *Lau* remedies required that schools provide instruction in students' home languages until they acquired enough English to function in mainstream classrooms, and those programs that did not have bilingual programs would have to demonstrate the effectiveness of their English Only programs. Even though the *Lau* remedies made attempts to specify aspects of education for ELs, they left many decisions up to states and districts.

The U.S. Court of Appeals in *Casteñada v. Pickard* (1981) attempted to address the unspecified nature of "appropriate action" of the *Lau* plan. The decision in this case called for a plan to measure compliance with "appropriate action." Schools would need to demonstrate, first, that their program for ELs was informed by educational theory; second, that the selected theory informed their practices and that the practices were implemented effectively; and third, that the chosen theory along with the implemented practices produced results in student learning (Bérubé, 2000). Both the *Lau* plan and the decision in *Casteñada v. Pickard* allowed for flexibility in educational programs addressing the needs of ELs. As such, schools developed many educational programs with different assumptions about language, the role of bilingualism in second language acquisition, and teaching and learning.

Another critical moment for the education of ELs came in 1991 when the Office of Civil Rights issued the Office for Civil Rights Enforcement Policy of 1991, which addressed issues of adequacy of program, such as staffing requirements, exit criteria for exiting ESOL programs, and ELs' access to gifted and talented programs. The policy stated that, "a recipient [of federal assistance] may not in effect relegate LEP students to second-class status by indefinitely

allowing teachers without formal qualifications to teach them while requiring teachers of non-LEP students to need formal qualifications” (Office for Civil Rights, 1991, p. 4). The focus on teacher qualifications continued with the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 which required that states employ “highly qualified teachers.” These requirements emphasize the need for teachers to have the training and knowledge to work with ELs.

Even though NCLB continued the tradition of requiring teachers to be qualified, it seemingly contradicted earlier legislation about bilingual education. Bilingual programs were supported by the federal government since the passage of the Title VII Bilingual Education Act; however, the support ended with NCLB. Peregoy and Boyle (2008) explain, “With the passage of NCLB, the bilingual education provisions of ESEA [Elementary and Secondary Education Act] Title VII have *not* been reauthorized for the first time in history. The current reauthorization of the ESEA thus effectively eliminates federal support for (but does not prohibit) bilingual instructional programs” (p. 21). The NCLB Act places emphasis on English language proficiency, expecting ELs to become proficient in English after only one year. NCLB Act also requires that all students, including ELs, reach a particular level of proficiency on standardized testing. The NCLB Act has put pressure on teachers, administrators, and universities to provide an education to ELs that will allow them to test well on standardized testing. Despite court decisions and legislation protecting the education of ELs, many students do not experience success in U.S. public schools (Gitlin et al., 2003; Nieto, 2002; Valenzuela, 1999).

An overview of these pivotal court cases and laws are given here to provide context to the KPD study. As demonstrated, schools in Kansas are required to address the needs of ELs. Even in the case where there are few ELs, districts must have a plan to provide services. However, the

design of those services is largely up to the districts' discretion. Thus, the education of ELs varies greatly with several types of approaches for meeting the needs of ELs.

The range of programs for educating ELs reflects the various interpretations of the Lau and subsequent court decisions. Each educational approach has different orientations to how English should be taught and learned, and what the role of bilingualism should be in the process. ESOL programs also vary greatly depending on the particular context of the school. Milambiling (2002) explains:

Educational solutions for these students must take into account a variety of factors, including the length of time the students have lived in the country of resettlement, whether they are immigrants or refugees, and what educational experiences they have had before coming to the United States. Even if schools consider these and other factors, the resulting programs usually need to be adjusted on a regular basis and sensitive to local contexts in order to meet the evolving needs of students, teachers, and institutions. (p. 21)

Programs that address the needs of ELs can be divided into two broad categories: 1) bilingual education programs that have goal to teach English to ELs while providing provide access to the curriculum through the home language (Lessow-Hurley, 2005); and 2) English language instructional programs that focus on students' acquisition of English through instruction in English. Within each of these categories, the programs vary depending on the amount of home language support they provide, the end goal of instruction, and the method used to reach the goals.

Particularly relevant to the current study are English language instructional programs that include "pull-out" or "push-in" programs, and sheltered English. ESOL pull-out instruction occurs when ELs are placed in mainstream classrooms with English-speaking peers for most of

the school day but are pulled out of classrooms for English instruction for part of the day to work with an ESOL teacher or paraprofessional (Peregoy & Boyle, 2008). Push-in instruction is when ESOL support staff members provide assistance in the mainstream classroom. Sheltered English is when teachers teach grade level appropriate subject matter by modifying the language so that the students can learn both English and academic content; with this instructional model teachers must have knowledge and training about how to modify language and content for ELs. PD programs, like KPD, attempt to prepare classroom teachers for sheltered English classrooms.

Although there are many options for instructional programs to support ELs, in some schools ELs are placed in mainstream classrooms with teachers who have been poorly trained or have had little or no training related to ESOL. In this “sink or swim” approach ELs are expected to learn English by being exposed to the language in a context with native English speakers or suffer the academic and social consequences. Bérubé (2000) claims this “do-nothing approach” is illegal under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act (p. 47) as students are not being supported in the classroom. In other words, ELs should receive some academic and language support when in the mainstream classroom, and teachers can learn about the unique needs of ELs and learn strategies and techniques to support their language development and academic content learning.

Need for TESOL PD among Mainstream Teachers

Many mainstream classroom teachers in the United States have little or no training in ESOL or bilingual education (Meskill, 2005); thus, they may not know information, techniques, or strategies to teach ELs effectively. In a survey of 144 secondary content and ESOL teachers, 96% of the in-service content teachers had ELs in their classrooms, but only 9% had a TESOL endorsement (Newman, 2010). The pattern of teachers serving ELs but not having the training was repeated in a study by Reeves (2006) in which 77.8% of the 279 secondary teachers in a

low-incidence school (with only 2.6% of the student population identified as “non-English language background”) reported they had experienced EL inclusion at some point in teaching career, but a majority of participants (90.3%) had received no training to work with language-minority or ELs. Furthermore, only 6.1% of the participants reported that they had received some type of ESOL training (p. 135). The studies cited here suggest that training related to ESOL is crucial as many teachers will have ELs in their classrooms at some point in their careers.

A possible reason teachers report little training related to TESOL is that many programs in the U.S. do not require it. Teacher education programs at colleges and universities do not have adequate systems in place to encourage more teachers to complete the training they need to work with ELs. To illustrate, in a survey of 417 institutions of higher education, less than one-sixth required that mainstream elementary or secondary teacher candidates take coursework related to teaching ELs (Menken & Antunez, 2001, p. 17). Furthermore, courses that are required, like multicultural education courses, do little to prepare teachers to face the multicultural and linguistic challenges of classroom. Teachers reported the course “was presented as a decontextualized history, without connections to their own stories” (p. 43) and without connections to teaching and learning (Lee & Dallman, 2008). The teachers felt they needed experience working with linguistically and culturally diverse students to learn and apply specific approaches and techniques to a particular teaching context.

Clair’s (1993) dissertation provides additional information about the lack of training among teachers. Clair presents the case histories of three classroom teachers and explores their beliefs, self-reported practices and PD needs. None of the teachers had received any form of preparation in working with language-minority students. Clair’s analysis revealed that: “(a) the teachers’ beliefs toward language-minority students may be based on hearsay and

misinformation; (b) the teachers do not vary their planning, but frequently vary lesson implementation; (c) selection of instructional practices may be based on naïve notions of language proficiency and the demands of the mainstream classroom; (d) the teachers draw on intuitive wisdom because of a lack of preservice teacher preparation and nonexistent or ineffective inservice staff development regarding issues related to language-minority students” (pp. 2-3). Furthermore, although the teachers made changes in lesson implementation to accommodate for the presence of language minority students, they had “a shallow understanding of the nature of their language-minority students’ first language (L1), first language background, socioeconomic background, education and literacy of parents or guardians and culture” (p. 173). The teachers also reported that “good teaching is good teaching,” meaning that they believed instructional practices based on educational principles are good for all students. Finally, the teachers used the same instructional practices in the classroom whether they had ELs or not. As illustrated, a gap exists between mainstream content-area teachers’ responsibilities toward educating ELs and their knowledge about the most effective ways to teach them. Teacher education programs and PD opportunities may help to narrow the gap and provide teachers with the knowledge, techniques, and strategies they need for teaching ELs.

The results of another study are a bit more complicated. Reeves (2006) found that although teachers expressed support and positive attitudes toward the inclusion of ELs, they showed less support for four practices considered to be beneficial for ELs. First, teachers were concerned about the equitability of coursework modifications for ELs, and were more willing to give ELs more time to complete coursework than to lessen the quantity of work or simplify the coursework. Second, teachers were reluctant to work with students who did not have a minimum of English proficiency; 75% of respondents agreed with the statement that ELs should not be

mainstreamed until the students had attained a minimum level of English proficiency. Third, teachers revealed some ambivalence toward PD. Even though 81.7% of teachers disagreed with the statement: “I have adequate training to work with ELs,” 45% were not interested in receiving more training in working with ELs (p. 136). Fourth, Reeves’ study reveals that teachers’ perceptions of language learning processes were contrary to research in second language acquisition. For example, almost 40% of teachers reported that ELs should discontinue use of their native language at school. Yet, research demonstrates that continued use of ELs’ language promotes second language acquisition and literacy (Cummins, 2000). Reeves also found that “Most (71.7%) teachers agreed that ‘ELs should be able to acquire English within 2 years of enrolling in U.S. schools’” (p. 137); however, research by Thomas and Collier (1997) and Cummins (2008) suggests that full proficiency including academic language generally takes 5 to 7 years. Although teachers expressed support of ELs, they did not fully understand how they could support ELs in the classroom. This study demonstrates the need for PD (including attention to course modifications, role of native language in second language acquisition, and processes of second language acquisition). Misconceptions about ELs and misinformation about the best ways to educate ELs prevent teachers from creating ideal learning environments.

Reeves (2004) provides additional information in another study. In a yearlong ethnographic study of secondary teachers’ attitudes and perceptions of the inclusion of ELs in mainstream classrooms, Reeves found that teachers endorsed a policy equalizing educational opportunity which produced inequities by restricting access to course content and using inaccurate assessments and grading for ELs. To elaborate, teachers felt that ELs had to learn to do the work in English alongside their native English-speaking classmates; therefore, the teachers provided few accommodations or differentiated instruction. The teachers recognized

that providing equal educational opportunities was difficult as they had “limited experience with ELLs, no training to work with ELLs, and little guidance from the school administration in dealing with language difference” (p. 58). The study illustrates how classroom teachers may struggle to provide other opportunities to ELs even when teachers know they need them.

Teachers who haven’t participated in PD related to ESOL may not be prepared to work with ELs. Harklau (1994) illustrated the challenge of not having trained mainstream teachers with an ethnography of four Chinese newcomer students in high school in California as they transitioned to mainstream classes. Harklau compared the learning environments of ESOL and mainstream classrooms and found classroom teachers made few adjustments to make the language comprehensible in teacher-led discussions. Teachers interacted with students mainly through written work or by providing minimal feedback, and students admitted to bluffing their way through assignments. The curriculum in mainstream classrooms was created with the assumption that students who had attended the same school through their education had relatively equal exposure to academic material. Harklau also found that explicit language instruction took place only in English classes, and teachers often lacked the ability to explain errors in language. Although the mainstream classroom provided authentic input with communicative purpose, there were few opportunities for interaction, little explicit feedback, and a perceived barrier between ESOL and mainstream students. Harklau concluded that “perhaps the most pressing concern was to increase mainstream practitioners’ and administrators’ awareness of and sensitivity to learner needs” (p. 268) and recommended training to achieve “systematic integration of content and language” (p. 268). The study illustrates the possible problems when ELs are placed with mainstream teachers who have not been prepared to teach them.

The need for PD of teachers is supported by another study by Harklau (2000) in which institutionalized images of immigrants shaped the curriculum and interactions between teachers and students. Harklau found that teachers respond to ELs in different ways depending on the dominant representation of immigrants in a particular context. For example, teachers characterized ELs at the high school as particularly exceptional and motivated, but teachers had some doubts about ELs' abilities and the negative consequences of their bilingualism. Yet, because the representations held reaffirming elements, and as a result, "students continually invoked and re-created it in the course of classroom interactions with their teachers" (p. 51). In contrast, community college instructors held representations of immigrants as new arrivals and this orientation shaped the course curriculum, their interactions with students, and their assumptions about students' needs. The same group of ELs who had before embraced an immigrant representation, now resisted it because it "led to the neglect or implicit devaluation of the hybridity and multiplicity of U.S. high school graduates' ethnic affiliations in the college's ESOL curriculum" (p. 56). The mismatch between the students' experiences and the dominant representation led the students to resist the education by "acting up" in class, forgetting materials, challenging instructors, missing class and assignments, and doing work quickly or with minimal effort. This study illustrates that teachers' representations of ELs can influence how ELs are positioned in school environments. Furthermore, it speaks to the need for teachers to understand how these representations of ELs can impact student performance.

Another study also supports the need for teachers to receive PD related to ESOL. In a year-long ethnographic study, Vollmer (2000) studied the discourse of high school teachers in California to explore their concepts and assumptions regarding the typical ESOL student. They explained how these assumptions influence teachers' interpretations of student behavior and

school performance. For example, teachers viewed Chinese students as passive, analytical and methodical while they viewed Russian students as aggressive, emotional and volatile, and motivated. Vollmer explains, “A common perception that the Russian students are ‘atypical’ ELs implicitly frames what is ‘typical,’ i.e., students who are passive, difficult to connect with, less willing to assimilate and less motivated to succeed; in short, students who do not uphold their end of the immigrant bargain” (p. 64). From the interview data it is clear that a student’s success or failure is placed entirely on him (his education background, the family and community support, the motivation to succeed), and not on the school systems, structures, or teachers (p. 63). This article helps explain how teachers’ ideas about students influence their perceptions of student motivation and ability. It helps to show why training in TESOL is important; teachers have misconceptions about students and learning a second language.

Some mainstream teachers recognize the need for training. For example, in Newman’s (2010) needs assessment survey, secondary teachers responded that ELs had linguistic, sociocultural, and other concerns. The teachers were aware of the needs of students and expressed interest in learning more about ESOL to meet those needs. “Content teachers are acutely aware of their lack of training,” Newman notes. “They want to learn how to adapt materials, lesson plans, and the delivery of those plans, as well as how to enhance the role of parents in the school lives of their students” (p. 157). These teachers recognize that teaching ELs is not just a matter of teaching content; they must give due attention to their instruction and delivery of content while addressing sociocultural concerns for ELs to be successful in the classroom.

Mainstream classroom teachers’ attitudes toward ELs vary greatly. Reeves (2006) found that classroom teachers reported positive attitudes toward the general idea of including ELs in

the classroom. A majority of the teachers (72%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement: “I would welcome the inclusion of ELs in my class” (Reeves, 2006, p. 136). Seventy-five percent of the participants reported that the inclusion of ELs created a positive educational atmosphere in their classrooms (23% disagreed with the statement) (p. 136). Karabenick and Noda (2004) in a study of 729 teachers in a Midwestern suburban district impacted by recent high numbers of refugees and immigrants found that, in general, teachers held positive attitudes toward ELs; however, there was a large number of the sample that did not. Specifically, the researchers found that “70% [of the surveyed teachers] agreed that ELL students would be a welcome addition to their classroom” and “less than half (43%) indicated that they would like to have ELL students in their classroom” (p. 60). This study shows considerable variability even within the same district. Other studies found teachers’ attitudes were not as positive. In study of 143 junior high/middle school mainstream teachers in a community on the Great Plains, Youngs and Youngs (2001) found that surveyed teachers reported neutral or slightly positive attitudes toward teaching ELs in the future. Walker et al. (2004) in a study of 422 K-12 teachers found that “70% (n=288) of mainstream teachers were not actively interested in having ELLs in their classroom” (p. 140). Furthermore, 14% percent of the teachers directly objected to ELL students being placed in their classrooms. Teachers’ attitudes toward ESOL student varied by community demographics (specifically, low-incidence schools, rapid-influx schools, and schools serving migrant students) (Walker et al., 2004). Together these studies suggest that teachers’ attitudes toward ELs vary widely by the teachers’ school and community context.

Several factors seem to shape teachers’ attitudes toward ELs. First, teachers’ own perspectives and experiences with diversity influence their perspectives of ELs. For example, Lee and Oxelson (2006) found that teachers with knowledge of another language or with training

about language diversity had positive attitudes toward language minority students and home language maintenance. Youngs and Youngs (2001) found that teachers' personal experience with foreign cultures was a predictor of teachers' attitudes: "Mainstream teachers were significantly more positive if they lived outside the United States...or taught outside the United States." (p. 113).

Second, teachers' contact with ELs also influenced their attitudes toward ELs. In one study, contact with ELs prompted positive attitudes toward ELs. For example, Karabenick and Noda (2004) concluded, "The more contact teacher have had, or currently have, with ELL students in their classes, the more positive their attitudes toward having ELLs in their classes" (p. 72). However, other researchers find that it is not contact with ELs that brings about positive attitudes; rather it is having contact with ELs from diverse regions (Youngs & Youngs, 2001).

Third, teachers' attitudes were shaped by teaching experiences and the grade level taught. Karabenick and Noda (2004) found, "There was also a tendency for teachers in the lower grades and for those with less experience either in the present school system or in any school system to have more positive attitudes. Thus, less experienced teachers in elementary schools had more positive attitudes than did more experienced teachers of high school students" (p. 72).

Fourth, the education of teachers is found to have some correlation to teacher attitudes toward ELs. Teachers with graduate degrees generally report more positive attitudes toward ELs than those without (Byrnes, Kiger, & Manning, 1997). Youngs and Youngs (2001) point out that even the subject area of study can influence teachers' attitudes; teachers in the humanities, social sciences, and natural/physical sciences were significantly more positive in their attitude than teachers from the applied disciplines. Researchers in both studies mention that the findings of their studies must be interpreted with attention to causal time order. Byrnes et al. (1997) note

that the direction of influence is unclear; teachers with positive attitudes toward ELs may seek educational experiences or educational experiences may help teachers develop complexity in their reasoning and critical thinking skills which allow them to cultivate more positive attitudes. Youngs and Youngs (2001) admit that they cannot defend the causal relationship directly, but explain that experienced teachers in the district probably did not seek more educational experiences with a recent and unexpected influx of ELs.

The fifth and final factor, and one that is particularly relevant to the current study, is the impact of ESOL training on teachers' attitudes toward ELs. This factor is explored fully in a discussion of the effects of professional development, but it's important to know that teachers who receive some type of ESOL training were more positive than teachers with no training at all (Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Furthermore, no significant differences in teachers' attitudes were found related to the type of training received (college, in-services, conference/workshops, other training, and any training).

In summary, insight into teachers' attitudes toward ELs can be gained from examining each of the factors listed above. The research suggests that multiple factors can influence teachers' attitudes, making it difficult to isolate the variables. Youngs and Youngs (2001) addressed this issue by developing a multipredictor model to account for the completion of foreign language or multicultural education courses, ESOL training, experience abroad, work with diverse ELs, and gender as predictors of teachers' attitudes toward ELs. Collectively the variables explain the variance in teachers' attitudes, but the relative role of each component is less clear. In other words, even though ESOL training impacts teachers' attitudes of ELs, it's only one factor among many.

Characteristics of Effective Professional Development

PD opportunities are intended to help both in-service teachers and their students. Guskey (2000) defines PD as “those processes and activities designed to enhance the professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes of educators so that they might, in turn, improve the learning of students” (p. 16). Borko (2004) notes that PD systems are composed of the PD program, the teachers who are the learners in the system, the facilitator, and the context in which the PD occurs.

There are many types of PD approaches or models. One of the most widely used is the workshop-based approach where typically there is a large group session with a featured speaker and smaller group sessions where teachers might further develop ideas or learn particular aspects of education. Even though workshop-style training sessions are the most common type of PD, they do little to change teachers’ practice or influence student achievement (Cochran-Smith, 2000). Recent approaches have shifted from “sit and get” sessions to opportunities for teachers to interact with each other, and even in some cases, generate knowledge. Guskey (2000) explains that PD is moving away from workshops to a “series of extended, job-embedded learning experiences” that provide opportunities for “educators to discuss, think about, try out, and hone new practices in an environment that values inquiry and experimentation” (p. 7). Some of these other PD approaches include idea exchanges where teachers from the same grade level or content areas get together to share and discuss ideas or develop or improve a process, visitations where teachers observe other teachers to expand their approaches and network with other teachers, and individualized coaching where a consultant invited by a district observes teachers in the classroom and helps them solve problems (Schubert, 1986). PD models can also include inquiry or action research where teachers form questions about their practice and work to answer them

using the scientific method. Engaging educators as researchers helps to narrow the gap between theory and practice (Guskey, 2000). Furthermore, action research involves teachers in professional reflection, validates educators as producers of knowledge, and recognizes their role in PD and decision making (Burbank & Kauchak, 2003). The PD school model places novice teachers with experienced teachers so that pre-service have the opportunity to learn while in practice and experienced teachers work on curriculum development, district initiatives, and action research.

Another PD approach, one that is particularly relevant to the current study, is graduate study where districts encourage or require teachers to get a certain number of graduate hours within a given time period. Many districts provide salary advancement for the completion of courses or a degree. According to Schubert (1986), graduate study is the most rigorous and demanding form of PD as courses provide information about theory and research. At the same time, college and universities are criticized for being “unconnected with practice,” (Schubert, 1986), and teachers often consider the courses irrelevant (Labaree, 2004). PD through graduate study is often available through partnerships developed between the university and schools or districts.

Researchers have identified characteristics of effective PD common to all PD types and approaches. Guskey (2000) recommends that PD should be intentional, ongoing, and systemic. PD that is intentional is consciously designed with a clear vision and planned goals to bring about positive change. Ongoing PD allows teachers to “analyze the effectiveness of what they do, reflect on their current practices, make adaptations when things are not going well, and continually explore new alternatives and opportunities for improvement” (Guskey, p. 19). PD should be systemic, meaning that the approach should take into consideration all levels of the

organization (district, schools, and teachers), include all those that affect student learning (bus drivers, secretaries, custodians, etc.), and fit in with the organization's values and practices.

Particularly relevant to the current study is Guskey's (2000) view of systemic PD, and thus, a more thorough exploration of the topic is provided here. Guskey (2000) explains, "What is required for success in PD is a clear and compelling vision of the improvements needed, combined with explicit ideas on the organizational characteristics and attributes necessary for success" (p. 21). By addressing PD on an organizational level, there is a recognition that PD happens within a context, and policies and organizational factors impact the opportunity. Guskey suggests that because organizational factors can influence PD, it is valuable to assess organizational support, which includes among other factors, examining organizational policies, available resources, protection from intrusions that may divert time and attention to other responsibilities, openness to experimentation, collegial support, administrator support, and recognition of success. In Guskey's view, PD should build organizational capacity and not just the knowledge of individuals.

Guskey's (2000) recommendations of intentional, ongoing, and systemic PD are supported by Hawley and Valli (1999) who identified eight characteristics of effective PD designs. In their "consensus model," PD: 1) is driven by analyses of the differences between goals for student learning and student performance, 2) involves teachers in identifying their learning needs and opportunities, 3) is school based, 4) is organized around collaborative problem solving, 5) is continuous and supported, 6) incorporates evaluate of multiple sources of information, 7) provides opportunities to develop a theoretical understanding of knowledge to be learned, and 8) is part of a comprehensive change process. As described in Hawley and Valli's work, to be effective, PD must include many elements in its design and implementation.

Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) add that PD “means providing occasions for teachers to reflect critically on their practice and to fashion new knowledge and beliefs about content, pedagogy, and learners” (p. 597). Furthermore effective PD takes into consideration teachers dual roles as both teachers and learners. According to Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin, PD should also engage teachers in concrete tasks of practice; encourage reflection; include inquiry and experimentation; allow teachers to collaborate and share knowledge; connect to teachers’ work with students; “be sustained, ongoing, intensive, and supported by modeling, coaching, and the collective solving of specific problems of practice” (p. 598); and relate to other school initiatives. The authors note that this perspective of PD is not as top-down as past approaches were where teachers’ work was directed and controlled; with this paradigm, PD is intended to build teachers’ capacity to impact student learning by better connecting theory and practice while also preparing teachers to make informed decisions.

Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson and Orphanos (2009) add that PD opportunities support teachers during the implementation stage to address specific challenges of classroom practices. In addition, teachers should be engaged in the approach so they can make sense of the new information and incorporate it into their practice. In a discussion of the preparation of preservice teachers, Darling-Hammond (2010) notes that PD should balance theory and practice and include a curriculum that is at the same time clinical and didactic. Teachers must learn to apply what they learn to their own lesson plans, assessments, and others aspects of practice with opportunities for feedback and reflection. She also notes that “theoretically grounded tools” and practice with those tools are needed to prevent university coursework from being “too theoretical,” abstract or general (p. 41).

In addition, researchers suggest that PD must also include evaluation. The component of evaluation does not appear as frequently as other characteristics in the literature, but according to some researchers, it is a critical part of the process. For Guskey (2000), the purpose of evaluating PD is to understand and strengthen it, and to determine its effects on intended outcomes. Guskey (2000) identified five critical stages or levels of information for evaluation. These evaluation levels include: 1) participant reactions, which addresses the participants' satisfaction and perceptions of value added; 2) participant learning, which requires gathering information about the new knowledge, skill, attitudes or beliefs of participants; 3) organization support and change, which measures the organization's efforts to accommodate, facilitate, and support change efforts; 4) participant use of knowledge and skills, which measures the degree and quality of implementation; and 5) student learning outcomes, which measures cognitive, affective, or psychomotor outcomes. For the current study, Guskey's framework was used to shape the data collection process and attempts were made to gather data related to levels 1 through 4. The scope of the study did not allow for an exploration of Guskey's final stage of evaluation related to student outcomes.

Another way to examine and evaluate PD is offered by Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999). In exploring the different conceptions of teacher learning, Cochran-Smith and Lytle created a conceptual framework to analyze the three most prominent conceptions of teacher learning in terms of their images of knowledge, the relationship between knowledge and practice, images of teachers and their practice, and images of teacher learning. The "knowledge-for-practice" conception is especially relevant to the current study as it "hinges on the idea that knowing more (e.g., more subject matter, more educational theory, more pedagogy, more instructional strategies) leads more or less directly to more effective practice" (p. 254). Teachers gain the

knowledge they need for teaching from researchers at university-based programs, and then, translate that knowledge into practice. With the “knowledge-in-practice” perspective, teachers learn as they interact with experts in the classroom and reflect on their experiences to deepen their knowledge. Knowledge is acquired as teachers made decisions about practice and reflect on those decisions. With the third conception, the “knowledge-of –practice,” knowledge is generated when teachers treat their classrooms as sites for inquiry and attempt to connect their work to larger social, cultural, and political issues. Though Cochran-Smith and Lytle use this framework to unpack three contrasting conceptions of teacher learning, it can also be a tool to analyze assumptions about the nature of knowledge, the role of teachers in generating knowledge, and teachers’ roles in and out of classrooms.

The effectiveness of PD partially depends on how it is conceptualized. Cochran-Smith (2005) noted that teacher education is often constructed as a public policy problem, based on research and evidence, and driven by outcomes. In other words, public policy sets guidelines about teacher qualifications and requirements, and creates a situation where only research related to teacher quality and student learning within a narrow scope is valued (studies that show causal or correlational relationships). Furthermore, the outcomes of students become the primary measurement for teacher education. Additionally, Cochran-Smith notes that tensions have surfaced as a result of this view of teacher education.

ESOL Professional Development

Situated in PD efforts are programs that are designed and implemented to meet the needs of teachers who have ELs in their classrooms. In many ways, these PD programs are similar to others—they need ongoing, systemic, and collaborative approaches—but in some ways they are

different. In this section, I review literature related to PD specific to ESOL to build an understanding of what is needed in the effort to prepare in-service teachers to work with ELs.

PD related to ESOL should recognize the knowledge and experience teachers' bring and build on it. Freeman and Johnson (1998) suggest reconceptualizing the knowledge base of ESOL teacher education to include teaching as it is learned and practiced. They suggest an ESOL teacher education program "needs to account for the teacher as a learner of teaching, the social context of schools and schooling within which teacher-learning and teaching occur, and the activities of both language teaching and language learning" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 397). Freeman and Johnson (1998) explain:

We now recognize that learning to teach is affected by the sum of a person's experiences, some figuring more prominently than others, and that it requires the acquisition and interaction of knowledge and beliefs about oneself as a teacher, of the content to be taught, of one's students, and of classroom life. (p. 401)

Freeman and Johnson conclude that teacher education programs should not only emphasize acquiring knowledge about linguistics, methodology, second language acquisition, but also equip teachers to examine social, cultural, and institutional context in which they teach. They must explore how the context influences their decisions and they must reflect on these practices.

Clair (1995) claims that teachers who work with ELs don't need short-term workshops but ongoing opportunities that allow them time to reflect, that respects their backgrounds and experiences, and that comes from teachers allowing them to become empowered. "Mainstream teachers need ongoing opportunities to reflect on nonmainstream student issues because educating ELs is complex; it challenges social, political, and pedagogical assumptions; it is context specific and dilemma ridden" (Clair, 1995, p. 193). Recommendations from Karathanos

(2009) mirror those of Clair. Teacher education programs must include “a process of critical reflection” in which teachers are guided to question assumptions or misconceptions about language issues. Karathanos (2009) also suggests practical experiences that provide hands-on experiences for effectively incorporating the students’ home language in instruction. The work of the researchers when considered together highlight an important point about the education of mainstream classroom teachers; becoming an ESOL certified teacher is not just about learning pre-determined course material, but requires analyzing assumptions and possibly even adopting certain beliefs about how ELs should be educated.

The research related to PD and ESOL presented thus far speaks to the process of effective PD. Recommendations focus on how to create space so that teachers can talk, examine assumptions, and reflect on their experiences. Equally important, there are many suggestions about what teachers need know when working with ELs.

What Teachers Need to Know

To teach ELs, teachers need to understand and address the linguistic, sociocultural, and academic needs of ELs. Teachers must convey their knowledge of the content through effective instructional practices and appropriate language use while also giving due attention to sociocultural concerns. Menken and Antunez (2001) recommend that teachers have adequate content knowledge, as well as information about pedagogy, linguistics, and cultural and linguistic diversity to make the lessons accessible and comprehensible to the students. Newman (2010) agrees and suggests that teachers also learn how to interact with the families and communities of ELs. Teachers should learn second language acquisition processes, methods of teaching English to ELs, best practices, the influence of culture on the classroom, the connections between societal issues and school policies, and ways to include ESOL parents in

education (Newman, 2010). Grant (1992) concurs with Newman while also emphasizing the need for instructional strategies and techniques. He mentions that teachers must develop cultural sensitivity, recognize the importance of knowing the home and community life of students, build cooperative groupings that facilitate learning, understand the importance of context in the instructional process, and develop an approach to multiculturalism. These recommendations make it apparent that there are many areas for teachers to learn when working with ELs. In the following section, an overview of the knowledge related to language, sociocultural factors, and academics is provided to illustrate the variety of information and skills that teachers need to know when working with ELs.

Language. To be successful in teaching ELs, teachers need to know key principles about second language acquisition (SLA). Particularly relevant to the teaching and interactions with students are SLA concepts regarding the age of the learner and the relative ease of learning a language; time needed to learn a second language; the role of exposure to the target language; and the effects of bilingualism in the SLA process. Teachers' knowledge about the SLA could inform their classroom practices and lead to better instruction of ELs (Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2002).

Age and learning. A common misconception among teachers is that children learn second languages more quickly and easily than adults. In other words, they believe that children have the ability to learn languages effortlessly within a short time frame, while adults struggle to communicate and may never achieve native-like proficiency. To illustrate, in a survey of 381 pre-service teachers, Busch (2010) found that teachers both before and after a second language acquisition course agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, "It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language" (p. 324). It is understandable that teachers believe this SLA

myth when they observe students who are able to communicate with teachers and classmates, and in some cases, even serve as interpreters (McLaughlin, 1992) when their parents need struggle to communicate at parent-teachers' conferences and need communication from the school translated to their home language. These observations and experiences reinforce teachers' misconception about children being able to learn language easily and quickly.

Research in SLA provides evidence that children are not better language learners than adults. First, children do not have a better capacity for learning language; rather the standard by which their proficiency is measured is lower than that of adults, and more closely matches their language competence (McLaughlin, 1992; Samway & McKeon, 1999). To elaborate, children's language constructions are short and with simple vocabulary, and they only have to display language competence equivalent to their developmental level. Whereas children only communicate about the concrete world about them and express their needs, adolescents and adults must be able to function in a variety of contexts and must be able to communicate about complex, and often abstract, ideas.

Second, the context in which children and older learners learn language is different. For children, the language learning environment is context-embedded where a child typically has a rich context where meaning can be drawn from nonverbal clues (such as facial expressions and gestures) (Cummins, 1981; Samway & McKeon, 1999). The learning situation for older learners is often context-reduced where the environment provides few or no clues about meaning and learners cannot use nonlinguistic clues to help them make meaning. Children benefit from the context-embedded learning environment, while older second language learners struggle to find meaning in context-reduced environments. In summary, children are not more naturally adept at learning language; rather the conditions of their learning are conducive to the SLA process.

Third, research related to the critical period hypothesis does not support the idea that children learn languages quickly and easily. To elaborate, the critical period hypothesis maintains that humans “are genetically programmed to acquire certain kinds of knowledge and skill at specific times in life” (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 17), and if they do not acquire that knowledge within the allotted time, the ability to learn it is greatly diminished (Lenneberg, 1967). Research shows that the critical period hypothesis holds true only for first language acquisition, not second language acquisition (Marinova-Todd, Marshall, & Snow, 2000). Children do not learn languages better because of biological readiness. Marinova-Todd et al. (2000) comment, “The truth is that myriad factors are involved in successful L2 [second language] learning, many which may be correlated with age but have nothing to do with changes in the brain” (p. 25). In other words, the learning environment and the language context matter a great deal in the how well one is able to learn a second language.

The misconception that children are able to learn languages more quickly and easily than adults has pedagogical implications in the classroom. First, if teachers believe that students learn languages easily, they may assume that ELs will pick up English effortlessly without any modifications to instruction. The teachers may not focus on how to make the lessons comprehensible or meaningful to young students or consider how special attention to language form and function in their content-based instruction may help ELs. Even though research recommends that explicit attention to linguistic form and function helps second language learners (Lucas, Villegas, & Freedson-Gonzalez, 2008), teachers may not think it is important. Teachers may also form unrealistic expectations for children, expecting them to learn English faster than what they are able to do. However, teachers who understand that children are not primed to be quick and efficient language learners may understand why ELs need special attention to

language in content-based classroom. By modifying instruction to include more context-embedded learning opportunities with strategic use of visuals, gestures, facial expressions, and realia (Krashen, 1983), teachers can better help ELs learn both language and content. In essence, what teachers know about language and how language is learned can influence their instruction.

Conversational and academic language. Without information about SLA, teachers can form misunderstandings about ELs' knowledge of English. Teachers may not understand the critical differences between conversational and academic language and the time it takes to learn each. ELs typically learn the language used for basic social interaction, called Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) within two years after arrival in a new country, but the language needed for academic purposes, called Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)—like reading, writing, speaking, and listening related to the academic content—may take five years or more, and even longer for students who have had no prior schooling or language support (Cummins, 2008; Thomas & Collier, 2002). To meet aspects of academic language, ELs must be able to compare, classify, synthesize, evaluate, and infer in a second language as well as understand instructions, read textbooks, and provide their own explanations. Academic language tasks are context reduced, as information is read from a textbook or presented orally by the teacher, and they are also cognitively demanding. Unlike conversational language, academic language develops when ELs receive language support and instruction about strategies to use (Cummins, 2008). The speed for acquiring the second language depends on learner characteristics, such as education level, native language proficiency, and the language learning environment (Brown, 2007); yet, even the best learners in the most ideal learning environment take quite a bit of time to gain academic proficiency.

Teachers need to know the difference between conversational and academic language to be able to set realistic expectations and provide support for students based on their language level. Without an understanding of this aspect of language, teachers may not understand why ELs struggle with reading and writing in the classroom but speak English with friends in social interactions. They may observe ELs language use with friends and assume the students don't need continued language support in the classroom. In contrast, when teachers know more about BICS and CALP, they can set realistic expectations for students, provide support, and continue to modify instruction until students are able to function independently in the classroom.

Exposure to target language. Some teachers hold misconceptions about the relationship between exposure to the target language and ELs' ability to learn a second language. Many teachers believe that the "more time students spend in a second language context, the quicker they learn the language" (McLaughlin, 1992). With this notion of "sink or swim," teachers believe that a submersion setting where students are constantly exposed to English will help them learn faster because students will be forced to interact and communicate in the second language.

Teachers need to know that the type or quality of exposure, and not just the amount of time in a second language setting, can influence how ELs learn English. Krashen (1983) claims that second language learners need language exposure or language input that is just beyond their current level of language competence. Teachers and student peers can help the ELs move to the next level by providing scaffolded learning opportunities, modifying their language to an appropriate level for the students by paraphrasing and repeating important words or ideas. The target language can be made "comprehensible" with the use of nonlinguistic clues such as gestures, pictures, and realia. Lucas et al. (2008) summarize the importance of comprehensible

input: “In other words, the quality and nature of the input—not just the exposure—play a major role in learning a second language” (p. 363). In realizing the importance of quality input, teachers can modify their instruction and provide students with a language environment that promotes learning both the target language and the course content.

Bilingualism. Bilingualism is another area in which teachers hold misconceptions about the SLA process. Some teachers believe that students learn better in an English-only environment, and often times teachers believe that by prohibiting the use of students’ native language, they are helping students learn English faster. To illustrate, in a study of 729 teachers in a midwestern suburban district, researchers found that 16% of the teachers agreed with the statement that learning in a student’s first language interfered with learning in a second language and about 19% of teachers neither agreed nor disagreed (Karabenick & Noda, 2004). Furthermore, “slightly more than half (52%) believed that the use of a first language (L1) at home interferes with learning a second language (L2), whereas 29% did not believe this and 23% were unsure” (Karabenick & Noda, 2004, p. 62). The expressed beliefs of these teachers mirror those of teachers in another study. In a survey of 422 K-12 teachers, Walker et al. (2004) found that “Fifteen percent of respondents (n=61) felt that ELLs learn better if they are prohibited from using their native language in school. The majority of teachers (46%, n=189) responded neutrally to this statement” (p. 144). The problem is that many teachers’ ideas about the role of bilingualism are contrary to research findings which reveal that a bilingual approach can be beneficial for ELs.

The use of native language support and bilingualism provides many benefits to ELs and their families. Continued support and development in students’ home languages while learning a second language encourages “enhanced cognitive, linguistic, and academic growth” (Cummins,

2000, p. 37). Early bilinguals have greater cognitive flexibility and show better performance in executive function or self-control tasks and word-learning tasks than their monolingual counterparts (Yoshida, 2008). Performance of executive function tasks is positively related to classroom success and helps students maintain their attention, plan, or organize, and children benefit from flexibility in word-learning by being able to learn words that are closely related to each other. In addition, skills developed in one's first language transfer to a second language, meaning a student who has learned a concept in his native language can access that knowledge in the second language without having to relearn the concept (Cummins, 2000). Furthermore, each language may structure concepts differently, and bilinguals benefit from being able to view the same concept from multiple perspectives (Yoshida, 2008). Lastly, students who are able to learn in their native language have access to academic content while they improve their English skills; they don't miss out on learning opportunities while they gain English proficiency. In summary, research on bilingualism suggests that students who are able to use the native language while learning English and develop two languages actually experience advantages in the classroom.

Teachers need to know about the benefits of bilingualism so they can find ways to support students' home languages and allow them to maximize their learning potential. Even though bilingual teachers may have an easier time providing learning opportunities in the second language, even monolingual teachers in settings where English is the principal language of instruction can provide first language support to students by providing materials in the students' first language, pairing students with the same native language together, or utilizing volunteers or paraeducators to focus on the native language (Karathanos, 2009). Furthermore, teachers can create a classroom environment where students' cultural backgrounds and practices are

acknowledged and affirmed to reinforce a positive self-identity for students. They can attend to the integration of home culture and practices, treat diversity as an asset to the classroom, maximize student interactions, and focus on language development (Stritikus, 2006). In other words, there are many ways that teachers, even monolingual teachers, can support a students' home language in the classroom.

Sociocultural factors. Teachers need to know the role of sociocultural factors in the SLA process. Not all ELs learn English in the same way and ELs are not a monolithic group. Lucas et al. (2004) explain, "Though ELLs tend to be discussed as if they were a homogenous group, they are not. They enter U.S. schools with varying levels of oral proficiency and literacy (in both English and their native language) as well as prior knowledge of and experiences with subject matter" (p. 366). Teachers need to be aware of not only the sociocultural factors that may influence how and why students learn a second language, but also the individual learner differences that influence the SLA process.

Language learning takes place in the social context (Lightbown & Spada, 2006) where the majority and minority language groups have a history of relationships. Ideas and ideologies about race, status, and sociocultural background influence how members of each group perceive themselves and each other. Power relations and status differentials combined with identity and ethnic group affiliations impact not only the motivations of language learners to learn the target language, but also what learning the target language means, i.e., acceptance of a new culture or the loss of identification with home culture. Furthermore, the students' minority status as a voluntary or involuntary immigrant minority shapes how ELs describe their future possibilities, the sense of their collective identity, their relationship to the dominant group, and their views of education (Ogbu, 1998).

Teachers who work with ELs also need to know how members of minority groups can respond to being in the target culture and language. Three responses have been identified: 1) minority language groups can assimilate to the dominant language and culture; 2) they can become bicultural and biliterate; 3) or they can maintain their home language and culture. With assimilation, minority groups adopt the customs, traditions, and language of mainstream U.S., and ELs are expected to set aside their home cultures and languages (Parra Cardona, Busby, & Wampler, 2004). Winford (2003) explains that minority language groups take on the language of the dominant group because social factors, such as the perceived cultural, political, and socioeconomic superiority of the dominant group, compel minority groups to assimilate. Bilingualism and biculturalism allow an “integrated identification” where individuals can incorporate aspects of both cultures and languages (Parra Cardona et al., 2004). Other members of minority language groups do not assimilate to the language of the dominant group and maintain their home language and culture. Negative attitudes by a dominant group toward a language minority creates and perpetuates separate linguistic and cultural identities, and language learners may not feel motivated to learn the dominant language because they want to resist assimilation or they want to maintain an affiliation with their ethnic group.

Particularly relevant to the current study are teachers’ ideas about the possible responses of minority groups living in the U.S. Some teachers view assimilation as the optimal goal; they feel ELs should become “American,” meaning they should adopt the language and culture of the mainstream. To illustrate, in a study of 422 K-12 mainstream classroom teachers, researchers found that “Twenty-five percent of teachers (n=103) felt that it was the responsibility of ELLs to adapt to American culture and school life while 30% (n=121) responded neutrally” (Walker et al., 2004, p. 140). When teachers and schools push minority schools to assimilate (Gitlin et al.,

2003), bilingualism and biculturalism are overlooked as a possible end outcome (Pease-Alvarez, 2002).

Understanding how sociocultural factors play a role in the SLA process is important for providing ELs with an equitable education. Sociocultural factors influence students' motivations and their interactions with other students. Teachers benefit by knowing the circumstances and situations students face; they can work to ensure that the students feel safe, comfortable, and valued. Moreover, they create a classroom environment where students feel their native languages and cultures are acknowledged, affirmed, and perceived as assets. Igoa (1995) suggests that teachers validate students' culture in the classroom by talking to students about their previous education, sharing cultural celebrations and holidays, and making strong home-school connections. Teachers who work with ELs should have bilingual/bicultural skills and awareness, set high expectations for students, integrate home culture and practices into the classroom, maximize student interactions, and focus on language development (Stritikus, 2006). Nieto (2002) goes a step further and says that schools must go beyond tolerance, acceptance, and respect to move toward affirmation, solidarity, and critique to foster education focused on social justice and equity. It moves from learning about diversity as a pleasurable activity to reflecting on one's own experiences, making informed decisions, and taking action for a more just society (Stritikus, 2006).

Academics. In addition to language and sociocultural factors, mainstream teachers must also address the academic needs of ELs. Teachers can address the unique academic needs of ELs in several ways. First, low English proficiency may mask ELs' ability to demonstrate what they know. Students may have knowledge of the academic content but cannot effectively communicate that knowledge in the second language (Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2002). Teachers

may modify instruction and assessments to ensure that ELs have the opportunity to communicate what they know. Second, teachers can address the academic needs of ELs by giving due attention to both content and language. With regard to content, the amount of material covered might need to be adjusted (Peregoy & Boyle, 2008), and an overview of the objectives should be provided so that ELs understand the big picture of the lesson before moving on to smaller, more complex details (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2008). Teachers can focus on language by giving students structured opportunities to practice reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Language objectives should also be discussed in lessons so teachers target particular language forms and functions necessary to interact with the content (Echevarría et al., 2008). Third, teachers can make academic content of the classroom more accessible to ELs by speaking slowly and clearly, defining words in a meaningful context, paraphrasing in simple terms, and limiting use of idiomatic speech (Peregoy & Boyle, 2008, p. 81). Teachers can also make the academic content accessible to ELs by supporting verbal explanations with nonverbal cues (Peregoy & Boyle). Teachers can use gestures, facial expressions, or actions to act out meaning. They can also use concrete materials, graphs, pictures, films, videos, and other visual aids help students attach meaning to the language and concepts they are learning. Wong-Fillmore and Snow (2002) explain, “Teachers need to understand how to design the classroom language environment so as to optimize language and literacy learning and to avoid linguistic obstacles to content area learning” (p. 21). Modifying the language and providing visuals are ways to avoid these obstacles and making the content accessible to ELs. In summary, there are ways teachers can meet address academic content and language in the classroom; PD can help teachers learn how to do it effectively.

Reflection and critical thinking. In addition to understanding and meeting the linguistic, cultural, and academic needs of ELs, teachers must be able to reflect on their teaching situations and think critically. Bartolome (1994) states that teacher education programs should prepare teachers to understand the political nature of schools, question deficit views of students, and examine the power relations of society that are reproduced in schools. From this perspective, effective teacher preparation programs should do more than teach about ESOL methods, strategies, and instruction techniques; they need to push teachers to challenge the ideological assumptions in schools. Bartolome argues that critical thinking and reflection can lead to a humanizing pedagogy that includes both a cultural responsive education and strategic teaching. To elaborate, in a culturally responsive instruction, the classroom teacher “values the students’ background knowledge, culture, and life experiences, and creates learning contexts where power is shared by students and teachers” (p. 190). Bartolome’s position is that teaching should be more than just learning, and then, developing a set of strategies and techniques. Teachers need to think about the unique characteristics of their students, find ways to legitimate and value their language and cultures, and create learning contexts where students empower themselves.

Collaboration with ESOL support staff. Teachers should also know how to collaborate with ESOL staff members who provide assistance to teachers and language and content support to ELs either in the mainstream classroom or in pull-out sessions. In comparing the learning environments of mainstream classrooms and ESOL classrooms, Harklau (1994) found ESOL teachers provided explicit feedback and instruction on language and rules, and offered opportunities for academic, social, and cultural counseling, and a chance for peer social interaction; classroom teachers did not display these behaviors as frequently. The study suggests ESOL teachers have a unique set of skills that may be beneficial to classroom teachers when

there is collaboration. Mainstream teachers can learn from ESOL support staff members who have been trained to work with ELs. Liggett (2010) explains, “By expanding on the possibilities for collegial relationships, general education teachers become more knowledgeable about language learning processes, learn ways to more accurately scaffold content information, and address any socio-cultural issue that may arise” (p. 229). In addition, both students and teachers can benefit from bilingual paraeducators who bring knowledge of students’ language, culture, and social capital to the classroom (English, 2009; Sandoval-Lucero, 2006).

Despite the possible benefits of collaboration, research indicates that mainstream teachers rarely collaborate with ESOL support staff (Ernst-Slavit & Wenger, 2006; Liggett, 2010; Monzó & Rueda, 2001a, 2001b, 2003; Rueda & Monzó, 2002; Sandoval-Lucero, 2006; Summers, 2008). For example, Newman (2010) found that about 65% of the teachers reported collaboration with ESOL teachers and staff; however, only 45% gave specific examples about the nature of the collaboration. Teachers’ vague responses led the researcher to question the extent of interactions between them, and the researcher concluded ESOL teachers are seen as a resource but not necessarily as an equal partner. When mainstream teachers do not take advantage of available support from ESOL support staff, they are underutilizing support systems that can help better educate ELs. The research suggests that there is room for improvement in the working relationship between ESOL support staff and classroom teachers, and PD opportunities can work to address these relationships and make them more effective.

In summary, current research has implications for teachers in Kansas. Classroom teachers must not only address academics, but must also have the knowledge and skills to attend to students’ cultural and psychological needs. Research indicates that sociocultural factors play a role in the process of learning a second language, which means teachers need to consider the

unique circumstances of each student. Teachers must be able to reflect on their teaching context, adapt techniques and strategies to their students' needs, while also questioning the ideological assumptions in schools. The literature suggests that teachers must make the most of professional relationships with paraeducators and collaborate with them. On the whole, learning about the SLA process can help teachers understand what ELs experience, and how they can help them in the classroom. Knowing about the SLA process can help teachers make informed decisions about their practice by finding techniques that are appropriate to students' needs.

In line with the literature mentioned here, Wong-Fillmore and Snow (2002) recommend seven courses for teachers working with ELs. First, a language and linguistics course would provide an introduction to linguistics, and include information about language structure, literacy development, the history of English, and the basics of linguistic analysis. Second, a language and cultural diversity course would focus on "cultural contrasts in language use" (p.48), the acquisition of language and culture, and different discourse styles. Third, sociolinguistics for educators would focus on language policies and politics that affect schools with attention to language contact, language shift and loss, and bilingualism. Fourth, a language development course would cover academic language development, the role of literacy in role in development of language skills, and acquisition of structures and vocabulary for literacy development. Fifth, a course in second language learning and teaching would provide the theoretical and practical knowledge about second language acquisition processes and factors that affect it, compare second language learning to first, and examine role the of primary language in development of second. A sixth course exploring the language of academic discourse would focus on the language used in teaching and learning school subjects, the structure of academic discourse and informal communication. The seventh course related to text analysis would examine how

language structures and style in written texts and would help teachers decide what aspects of texts to emphasize. The researchers suggest many aspects that mainstream classroom teachers should know when working with ELs, but it does not answer sufficiently whether this is the information that in-service teachers believe to be important or what university professors emphasize in their coursework. The current study will attempt to provide a glimpse into these perspectives as they relate to this literature.

Effects of ESOL Professional Development

As suggested by the literature, teachers need to have a wide variety of knowledge and skills to teach ELs effectively. Studies show that when teachers participate in professional development opportunities, their attitudes toward the education of ELs are more positive, their knowledge of SLA increases, and teachers' practices change. In this section, research related to the effects of PD of teachers is further explored to highlight the potential of programs like KPD to change teacher attitudes and practice.

As described earlier, teachers' educational levels and ESOL training seems to be a positive factor in predicting their attitudes toward teaching ELs (Byrnes et al., 1997; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Research also indicates that teachers with positive attitudes toward ELs tend to support best practices for ELs. Karabenick and Noda (2004) found that teachers who were more accepting of ELs in their classes generally supported practices believed to be beneficial for ELs. For example, they typically favored bilingualism and were more likely to believe that the students' first language promotes school performance without impeding learning of a second language. They also were more likely to believe that ELs should be tested in their home language or to report that lack of English proficiency did not imply lack of comprehension.

Teachers' experiences with TESOL training also influences their ideas about bilingualism and SLA processes. Lee and Oxelson (2006) found that teachers with knowledge of another language or with ESOL training about language diversity had positive attitudes toward home language maintenance than those without. In addition, these teachers implemented classroom practices that affirmed the student's home language and culture. Teachers without ESOL training "believed that the primary role of schools is to teach English and that the school, parents, and communities must all place English as the foremost priority" (p. 461). They also showed agreement with the statement that "more time and greater exposure to English lead to faster and better English language acquisition" (p. 462). The researchers point out that teachers' attitudes were not affected by the number of years of teaching experience or the makeup of the student population, but rather if teachers had received PD related to ESOL. Lee and Oxelson (2006) call for further research about how PD and training may affect teachers' attitudinal changes.

The findings of Lee and Oxelson (2006) are supported by several related studies about the use of students' home language. First, in a study of Kansas teachers, Karathanos (2009) found that teachers who had been trained in ESOL showed more support for the use of a students' native language in instruction than teachers who had not taken these classes. However, teachers supported home language use more in theory than in practice. Preservice teachers showed the least support, untrained teachers (experienced teachers with no ESOL-specific university coursework) expressed more support than pre-service teachers, and trained teachers (experienced teachers with at least three courses of ESOL-specific university coursework) showed the most support of the three groups. Karathanos concluded teaching experience and university preparation are strong indicators of teachers support for theory of using students'

home language in instruction. She (2009) concluded that the findings show a need for teacher education programs that include “theory-driven content instruction and experiences that give them the tools necessary to promote school success among ELL students” (p. 628).

Second, in a study of 794 elementary and secondary teachers, Shin and Krashen (1996) found that “While support for the principles underlying bilingual education was strong, support for actual participation by students in bilingual programs was not as strong” (p. 45). For example, the teachers showed 74% agreement that “learning subject matter in the first language is helpful because it helps students understand subject matter better when it is taught in English” (p. 48) and felt that being bilingual could result in career-related advantages, development in skills, and biculturalism. However, only 50 to 60% of teachers supported participation in bilingual education programs, and 22 to 29 % were not sure. They also found that those teachers “with more supplementary training in ESOL and bilingual education were more supportive of bilingual education” (p. 45). This study indicates that even though teachers may support the principles of bilingual education, they may not support bilingual education programs.

PD opportunities and educational experiences have also been shown to influence teachers’ beliefs about educating ELs in other areas, too. For example, Busch (2010) examined how preservice teacher beliefs about language learning changed during the course of a SLA class and found that their perspectives changed on 16 of 23 statements related to SLA. There was a significant difference in pre- and post-tests of the preservice teachers’ attitudes regarding the time it takes ELs to learn a second language, difficulty in language acquisition, the role of culture, the role of error correction, the importance of grammar, and the efficacy of audiolingual strategies. Other statements such as “It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language” and “It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language” among others showed

no significant difference before and after the SLA course (p. 324). The teachers attributed the changes to course reading and material, experience with ELs, class discussions and presentations by the teacher, a logical induction leading to a new belief, or to concurrent experience studying a foreign language (Busch, 2010). This study supports the idea that PD can bring about changes in teachers' beliefs.

In another study, pre-service teachers conducted urban observations and documented the needs of the ELs and the ways teachers responded to them (Vacca-Rizopoulos & Nicoletti, 2009). Through the experience, pre-service teachers changed their assumptions about ELs and developed an awareness of the classroom teachers' role in supporting ELs in the mainstream classroom. For example, they became aware of the importance of bringing nonlinguistic clues into the classroom, using a students' native language to make connections to English, addressing errors in a systematic way, and including parents in the education process.

In-service teachers also have much to gain from ESOL PD. In a dialogical narrative with a teacher educator, an 8th grade science teacher in a sheltered English language learner science class reflects on her experiences of participating in ESOL PD and adjusting the classroom to fit the needs of her ELs (Welsh & Newman, 2010): "I myself received no training in TESOL techniques during either my undergraduate or graduate programs. I was unable to be effective as a teacher of ELLs until I was exposed to linguistic theory and specific strategies for teaching English to language learners" (p. 144). Through her ESOL courses, the teacher began to understand the importance of comprehensible language input and interactive, task-based, and meaningful learning opportunities. She encouraged students to talk and created an environment where they could experiment with language. Through this reflection and dialogue, the teacher retells how she applied concepts from her TESOL courses to her teaching context; she connects

second language acquisition theories to her practice in the classroom, and she describes different methods that she began to use as the result to her courses. For example, she talks about “activating students’ prior knowledge, ensuring word recognition fluency, and summarizing text” (p. 141) when reading and focusing on language objectives during writing. The teacher educator in the dialogic pair concludes, “Training programs, such as the one we offer, allow content teachers to improve upon what they already know and do, building upon their years of expertise as educators” (p. 143). The teacher educator also notes that teachers need time for reflection and “concrete strategies that have immediate application” (p. 143) to the classroom. Although this study has just one teacher, it illustrates how teachers’ practice can change with professional development.

Additional support for PD programs comes from He, Prater, and Steed (2011) who examined the impact of PD on teachers and students in a district and found that a research-based, needs-oriented PD provided teachers with useful strategies and resources. Teachers demonstrated an increase in their knowledge of ESOL education and provided more concrete and relevant strategies for ELs after the PD sessions. He, Prater, and Steed (2011) make the argument that the PD not only impacted teachers but also positively influenced ESOL student performance data. Contextual and program factors contributed to the successful delivery of the PD. The program was developed based on the recommendations of teachers and administrators from the district as they provided input about both the content and evaluation of the courses. The PD “provided adequate opportunities for teachers not only to receive information regarding linguistic and language development theories, but also share their experiences and reflect on their own practices” (p. 14). The researchers conclude, “We hope that the collaborative process of the design of our PD inspires more educators to seek cooperation and collaboration between

universities and schools to provide quality PD for all teachers” (p. 15). This particular study illustrates not only the impact of partnerships between university and schools but also how they can benefit from an open and collaborative process in designing, implementing, and evaluating the program.

Another study shows the positive effects of PD on teachers’ attitudes and practices. Peter, et al. (2012), in a study of in-service teachers in a university program “designed to complement and expand teachers’ exposure to theories, principals, and practices of content-based language instruction” (p. 10), found the ESOL endorsement program positively influenced teachers’ attitudes towards ELs, beliefs about second language acquisition processes, and practices for educating ELs. Specifically, researchers found that participants showed an increase in the “appreciation of the use of students’ first language to facilitate comprehension of content and promote bilingualism” (p. 19) and were “more positively disposed to allowing ELLs to use their first language in the classroom after completion of the coursework” (p. 20). Teacher participants also showed an increased need “to connect with their students’ culture in order to achieve better academic results in the classroom” (p. 21). Teachers were interested in learning about students’ cultures and developing greater intercultural communication with their students. Lastly, teachers changed their pedagogical practices to better align with the needs of ELs. The endorsement program helped teachers to better plan for instruction, include language objectives in their lessons, and provide sheltered instruction. According to the researchers, the university ESOL endorsement program helped teachers make significant changes to better serve the needs of ELs.

Several insights can be gained from Peter et al.’s (2012) study. First, while teachers did make changes in their attitudes, beliefs, and practices, they persisted with some misconceptions about SLA processes. On the nine items to measure teachers’ beliefs about second language

acquisition processes, there was only one change on pre- and post- program questionnaires. This pattern is mirrored in the research of Busch (2010) in which pre-service teachers changed some of their beliefs related to ESOL but continued to believe some misconceptions about SLA processes.

Second, the researchers acknowledge that teachers expected the university instructors to make adjustments in the courses to meet the time constraints and responsibilities of full-time teachers. The researchers mention that several adjustments were made to the curriculum to meet “teachers’ demands for flexibility and practicality” and other accommodations such as changing the traditional grading “in an attempt to assuage teachers’ anxiety over the course content and requirements” (p. 18). The teachers felt the applied linguistics course and the second language acquisition course to be “insignificant” and “unimportant” (p. 25). Peter et al. suggest that the content of these courses is perhaps too theoretical to meet the practical needs of in-service teachers.

Third, Peter et al. imply a mismatch between the districts’ goals, the university programs, and teachers’ perceived needs in the classroom. The program was mandated by a district in an attempt to make the school an ESOL school, and teachers who planned to remain at the school were required to complete the endorsement. The researchers explain, “The teachers’ generally high level of educational and cultural experiences, combined with the district’s controversial endorsement, may have contributed to teachers’ skepticism, ambivalence, and in some cases, hostility toward the courses” (Peter et al., 2012, p.19). This study suggests that different stakeholders have different goals and approaches in educating ELs and these goals may sometimes conflict.

Even though much research indicates that PD can be beneficial to mainstream classroom teachers, other studies reveal that there are tensions. In a study of 890 ESOL-endorsed teachers in Kansas, Kreicker (2003) found a “majority of teachers who responded to the survey found their endorsement courses to be easily accessible, felt the endorsement had improved their ability to advocate for ELL students, and were glad to have completed the endorsement” (p. 128). However, teachers were uncertain about the “quality and worthwhile nature of the ESOL endorsement courses” and “they were somewhat uncertain as to whether the endorsement had changed the way that they teach, and they still expressed some uncertainty about their ability to assess ELL students effectively” (p. 129). They also expressed “some uncertainty about whether their ESOL endorsement courses had matched the realities of the school in which they teach” (p. 129). Kreicker also found that teachers who received financial incentives were not as satisfied with the endorsement as were teachers who had received none. In addition, those who were required or encouraged by the district were less satisfied than teachers who reported a need for it based on their schools or classroom or those who hoped it would bring them future job security or opportunities. Kreicker’s study offers insights into the potentially problematic nature of ESOL endorsement programs, by which teachers are deemed to possess the knowledge and skills to work with ELs but they report unchanged practices or uncertainty about teaching ELs.

Another study reveals some negative aspects about PD as well. To gain an understanding of mainstream classroom teachers’ professional needs, Clair (1995) completed qualitative case studies of three mainstream classroom teachers. Clair found variation in the teachers’ attendance and satisfaction with workshops about ESOL education, and revealed two essential problems with teachers’ ideas about PD. First, the study reveals that teachers believe in quick fixes to educating ELs. Clair says the focus on “toolkit” teaching is because teacher education programs

stress “technical conceptions of teacher competence as opposed to a more critical approach to teaching and learning” (p. 192). In addition, the idea that teachers are only curriculum implementers is widespread. The “de-skilling” of teachers comes with loss of decision-making as there is no room for teachers to ask questions or generate knowledge. The problem is even greater because of standardization and the push for accountability. Second, Clair found that teachers overlook the usefulness of specialized knowledge concerning ELs, they minimize the importance of individual difference, and fail to recognize the “complexities of the social and academic integration of ELs in mainstream classroom settings” (p. 193). From this study, it’s clear that teachers even after PD may not understand the value of PD as it relates to ESOL.

In sum, PD opportunities can influence teachers’ attitudes and practice related to ESOL. Teachers with positive attitudes toward ELs favor practices that offer support in the classroom, and teachers with training often have a better understanding of the role of native language use in the classroom and the SLA process. Although PD can bring about some change, research shows areas where misconceptions about SLA continue. In addition, PD opportunities influence how ELs are taught. Teachers with ESOL training generally respond to ELs in more culturally sensitive ways than those without training. Researchers suggest PD that would incorporate second language acquisition theory with practical information about how to connect the theory to practice.

University and District Partnerships

Collaborative partnerships between universities and school districts attempt to meet both the need for school improvement and teacher PD. Districts or schools and universities have a long history of partnerships to provide teacher preparation to pre-service teachers. In recent years, the focus has shifted to include PD intended in-service teachers as well (Borthwick,

Stirling, Nauman, & Cook, 2003). To understand the nature of university and district partnerships, I explored literature involving these two parties. Notably, most research related to the topic explored professional development schools (PDS), which are designed to be collaborative efforts in which pre-service teachers gain practical experience in schools with mentoring teachers while taking courses that highlight theory and research (Darling-Hammond, 1994). At first glance, studies about PDS may not appear relevant to the current study that explores a partnership between a university and several districts with the goal of preparing in-service teachers; however, PDS are intended not only to prepare pre-service teachers but also to shape K-12 education when experienced teachers also participate in the community learning. In addition, challenges noted in literature related to PDS were also areas of interest for the present study and speak to the difficulty of creating a collaborative effort that meets the needs of all participants.

The PDS approach emphasizes the sharing of knowledge among teachers and researchers. According to Walsh and Backe (2013) these partnerships developed initially to benefit universities that needed sites to place practicum students; however, more recently the needs of schools and school districts compel them to seek assistance from universities to provide PD to teachers with the goal of improving student performance. In a study by Edens, Shirley, and Toner (2001) both site-based and university-based faculty and administrators had high expectations of the PDS experience and reported “enhanced professionalism,” networking opportunities, and expanded personal and professional relationships. At the same time, participants reported challenges with training, retention, recruitment of teachers, and technology among other concerns. University faculty members in another study reported tension in learning how to create a collaborative culture as it took considerable time to reshape their curriculum to

meet their intended collaborative approach and for participants to become comfortable with it (Snow-Gerono, Yendol-Silva, & Nolan, 2002). In addition, faculty reported three main tensions related to theory and practice: 1) The university focused on conceptual approaches (where participants learn to think about teaching) whereas participants favored a procedural approach (where they learn about activities and behaviors; 2) Participants sought to understand a specific context whereas faculty wanted to prepare participants for a generalized context; and 3) Participants wanted immediate application, but faculty offered a variety of theoretical approaches to issues.

Researchers have identified many characteristics of effective PD in university and school partnerships. Walsh and Backe (2013) report that effective partnerships must have a common vision, require mutuality in roles and relationships, have plans in place to address infrastructure, funding, and sustainability, and lastly, evaluate the process and outcomes of the partnership. Their study suggests that effective partnerships between universities and districts can happen, but they don't happen without careful planning and consideration. Stephens and Boldt (2004) proposed that developing and maintaining the partnerships requires asking difficult questions about who will be involved, how the stakeholders will confront limitations, what they will contribute and receive. In other words, successful district-university partnerships go beyond making "arrangements" or "agreements" to bringing partners together to discuss various aspects of the partnership. Thorkildsen and Stein (1996) identified characteristics of successful partnerships that were widely supported in literature. Based on these characteristics—which included a well-defined administrative structure, mutual self-interest and common goals, and commitment—the researchers provided potential strategies that could help partnerships avoid

conflicts and improve the chances of success. These works suggest that both universities and schools can play an active role in ensuring success of the programs.

Yamagata-Lynch and Smaldino (2007) go a step further and suggest challenges in the partnership should be anticipated and a system for addressing them and working toward solutions should be developed. Through the use of activity theory to evaluate a school and university partnership, they propose a framework designed to allow participants in a school and university partnership to discuss institutional tensions and plan strategies to overcome them. Once the participants in their study identified the main tensions—lack of communication among stakeholders, the challenge of balancing theory and practice, and lack of stakeholder buy-in—they provided strategies to address the tensions and reportedly took action to improve relations. In this study, participants had a set framework for discussing challenges that came about in the partnership, which helped them to evaluate the program and work toward improving the program. In brief, university and district partnerships can be effective when particular characteristics and systems are in place.

Both university and districts have much to gain from partnering with one another. Collaboration between the two parties provides individual and institutional renewal by infusing both environments with expertise and knowledge from inside and outside (Goodlad, 1988). The benefit to districts is that teachers increase their professional interactions with colleagues (Sandholz, 2002), and they have opportunities to analyze their practice and build new knowledge (Darling-Hammond, 1994). Furthermore, through focused and systemic PD, districts are able to address districtwide challenges (Guskey, 2000). In addition, communities and stakeholders are informed and assisted by universities in addressing identified needs (Cox, 2000). The benefit to universities is that faculty members become more aware of existing tensions between theory and

practice and became more collaborative in their approaches (Snow-Gerono et al., 2002).

Furthermore, institutions of higher education can involve the community and project in research, connect to new media and networks of communication to reach new audiences, build trust and goodwill with constituencies (e.g., elected officials, business people and citizens) that may later bring enrollments, placements, and funding (Cox, 2000). In addition, ongoing communication “can help to reduce stereotypes that serve as barriers to communicating, sharing, and interpreting information” (p. 15). Lastly, partnerships can be beneficial to universities because of the potential to generate new information and contribute to the body of knowledge. This work by Cox illustrates that universities have much to gain from successful partnerships, and the benefits could extend far behind the particular department involved in the partnership.

District Role in Professional Development

A critical aspect of the PD of teachers is district involvement and support. Pritchard and Marshall (2002) identified PD characteristics of healthy and unhealthy districts and found that healthy districts provided activities on an ongoing and sustainable basis that were part of the district initiatives. Moreover, in healthy districts, PD was a part of strategy that helped districts make decisions about the goals of the district. Pritchard and Marshall (2002) found when healthy districts focus PD on a particular and defined purpose, student achievement is impacted in a positive way. This study makes it clear that districts can make decisions about PD that will not only impact the teachers, but also the districts and students as well. The study also suggests that districts can take steps to integrate PD opportunities into district initiatives, expect teachers to participate in PD as part of their responsibilities with time to complete during their contracted hours, and involve administrators in planning and participating in PD. In essence, districts should take an active role in PD opportunities.

District and university partnerships can be challenging, as there is the potential for conflicting goals and views of PD among district administrators, teachers, and university partners. How PD programs are implemented may contradict or undermine efforts to follow the recommended strategies for effectiveness (Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006). For example, in Sandholtz and Scribner's study, even when district administrators tried to engage teachers in the PD process, they tended to devalue their knowledge and expertise by deferring to the experts. They engaged teachers in the planning process only as a way to secure their buy-in. Furthermore, Bartholomew and Sandholz (2009) found that in school-university partnerships, district administrators viewed teachers as "implementers" who would carry out a particular standards-based curriculum and testing system. Administrators were mainly concerned with teacher compliance, teacher training, and alignment of the curriculum and testing. In contrast, university professors viewed teachers as professionals "who draw upon their specialized knowledge and expertise to make reasoned decisions about their work" (p.159). Professors involved teachers as decision makers, emphasized instructional choices and explored the complexity of teaching. The differences in how teachers were viewed created dilemmas that influenced the partnership's goals and activities as professors pushed for teachers to gather information and make decisions, and teachers based their decisions primarily on the curriculum put forth by the district. Bartholomew and Sandholz (2009) conclude that university partners must find ways to "recast institutional common ground in order to expand views of the teacher's roles in reform" and without doing so, their work may be regarded as "irrelevant, or worse, running counter to K-12 aims and thus compromising the potential of partnerships to create learning communities that are grounded in the complexity and creativity of teachers' work" (p. 164).

In addition to the general characteristics of effective PD described earlier, districts that provide learning opportunities related to ESOL must support the initiatives put forth by the PD program. Three studies provide support for the idea that teachers' approaches to ELs must be supported by the district. The first study conducted by Stritikus (2006), reported that even when teacher practices are in line with "additive" perspectives of addressing cultural and linguistic diversity—meaning teachers are aware of bilingual and bicultural skills, have high expectations of students, treat diversity as an asset—schools practices may not be. According to Stritikus, teacher practices are important for creating a culturally responsive environment, but the teachers must be situated in schools where the school practices are also additive. Schools must accept and value diversity and provide PD that encourages collaboration, flexibility, and continuity. Furthermore, the school must operate in connection to the larger sociocultural context of the community by reflecting the characteristics of the community and connecting to it. The findings of Stritikus (2006) suggest that when practices of teachers aren't supported by school practices, there is potential for conflict.

The need for district support and involvement is evident in a study from Karabenick and Noda (2004) that explored teachers' perspectives of district support for ELs. They found that "Forty-six percent of the teachers indicated that ELL students in their buildings are not, or would not, be viewed as problems by other teachers or building administration; however, 30% did believe that the ELL students are viewed less favorably by building administrators and their fellow teachers, with 24% indicating they were uncertain of the school's perceptions related to ELL students" (p. 66). They also found that only about half of the teachers believed district's bilingual and ESOL services supported instructional needs, and about half reported that insufficient resources from the ESOL program were provided. Karabenick and Noda concluded

that teachers' attitudes toward ELs are correlated to their perceptions of the receptivity in their buildings and district support. In other words, given the teachers' perceptions of the lack of support from the district and administrators, it was likely the teachers also held uncertain or unfavorable attitudes toward ELs.

In a third study of 90 elementary and secondary teachers in two ESOL licensure programs, Eun and Heining-Boynton (2007) found that teacher efficacy and organizational support (which included the support from school principal and the overall school culture) influenced the impact of the ESOL professional-development programs. There was a high level of variation in the amount of organization support teachers thought they received from their schools. The organization support at the school level made a significant contribution to the prediction of the level of PD impact, even more so than teachers' self-efficacy. To put it simply, high organizational support increased the impact of the PD. These results suggest that without the necessary resources and support, even teachers with high efficacy beliefs will not transfer their knowledge to performance. The researchers conclude that teachers with knowledge need school-level support if they are to implement PD ideas into classroom practices.

This brief literature review of the function of school districts and administrators in PD indicates that teachers benefit from support from administration. Further, districts can benefit from the PD by tying it to district initiatives and goals. However, the literature also suggests that even a well-implemented PD program may not succeed if it is not situated in a context of support.

University Role in Professional Development

The role of university partners in PD of teachers is not as well-researched as the role of districts. General recommendations of effective PD programs—such as having a common vision

(Walsh & Backe, 2013), having a system for addressing problems (Stephens & Boldt, 2004; Yamagata-Lynch & Smaldino, 2007), and providing a balance between theory and practical application (Darling-Hammond, 2010)—apply to the roles of universities in carrying out PD. Though these suggestions provide some information about the role of the university, they do little to explore how universities carry out their roles given the myriad factors involved. Here, a thorough overview of one study is given to illustrate the influence of contextual factors in shaping university programs.

PD programs related to ESOL are socially negotiated and situated in their particular contexts. In a naturalistic inquiry of two MA-TESOL programs at research universities, one in California and the other in the southeastern United States, Ramanathan, Davies, and Schleppegrell (2011) found that identities of the programs were shaped “by factors in their respective local environments that in turn affect what is taught in each program” (p. 279). Both programs met the standards of TESOL teacher education programs, but they did it in different ways.

The two programs negotiated their statuses as parts of larger department; they had to justify their programs, act to legitimize themselves in the larger departments where they were housed, and negotiate their purpose in relation to currents and tensions in their departments. The California program, housed in the linguistics department, had a strong focus on linguistics and teacher educators justified it by saying that a strong foundation in linguistics was needed for students’ PD. The MA-TESOL in the southeastern part of the U.S. was housed in the English department and had to meet the needs of the department by providing teaching assistants with TESOL background to teach international students. In exchange, the department offered TESOL students the opportunity for practical teaching experiences.

Ramanathan et al. (2001) found that local context influenced the programs as well. The California program shifted its focus as the instructors had increased contact with the education department; “The presence of education (largely K-12) credential students in TESOL classes, for example, has pushed the instructors to orient the classes toward this population’s needs” (p. 293). The California TESOL program was shaped by being in a context where TESOL students were concerned about immigrant issues, bilingualism, and how to educate K-12 students. In contrast, the other the program focused on meeting the needs of TESOL students who wished to teach overseas or at language institutes. In both cases, the programs were dynamic and adjusted to the needs of the students, departments, and community. Ramanathan et al. explain, “MA-TESOL does not have a completely self-defined identity. On the contrary, it appears to be chameleonlike, with individual program cultures evidencing marked traces of their larger departments” (p. 299).

Ramanathan et al. (2001) found that both programs struggled to find a balance between pedagogy and research and decide for what context they should prepare students. Instructors from both programs wanted students to think about theoretical links to pedagogical practices instead of developing just a bag of tricks. Staff with both programs believed in the importance of “critical reflection” in which students would be taught principles about language and learning that could be adapted in various contexts depending on the learners’ needs and the teaching setting. At the California university, TESOL staff attempted not to be too practical so that the program would not lose prestige. The other university emphasized research for funding purposes and encouraged students to do individual research projects. Ramanathan et al. found that the presence of a research-oriented doctoral program may have also put more emphasis on research at the MA-TESOL level.

Ramanathan et al. (2001) provide several insights into the role of universities in PD related to ESOL, although the study offers no specific recommendation about how professional programs should be structured or what content they should include. First, the study highlights the multifaceted pressures university TESOL programs face in meeting the needs of students, community, the department, and university. Second, it also demonstrates that TESOL programs are often dynamic as they respond to these pressures. And third, the research questions whether one program can address the needs of many different types of students with a variety of goals and interests at the same time.

Distance Learning in Rural Areas

Schools and districts in rural areas have added challenges related to PD and serving an increasingly diverse student population. To illustrate, Bérubé (2000) notes that teachers who work in rural and small towns usually have more than 15 years of teaching experience, which means student demographics have changed considerably since when teachers finished their initial training. Bérubé explains, “The LEP student is significantly disadvantaged in both understanding content instruction due to dysfluency and falling victim to an otherwise competent and caring teacher who knows almost nothing about the LEP students’ special learning needs” (p. 109). From this discussion, we can see that teachers in rural areas are in need of ESOL training so they can better serve their students. Yet, because of their location, schools and districts struggle to find qualified teachers or PD opportunities. Bérubé notes, “Rural communities often find that recruiting a qualified ESOL teacher can be a daunting challenge. Urban schools frequently offer better wages and working conditions that discourage stronger candidates from applying for ESOL positions in the rural schools” (p. 98). Other studies supported Bérubé’s conclusions. For example, in a study of endorsed teachers in Kansas,

Kreicker (2003) found that despite efforts by universities to extend to rural areas through distance learning, rural teachers found ESOL endorsement course locations to be less accessible than did their urban and suburban counterparts. While not unique to teachers in rural areas, there are obstacles, such as cost and proximity of courses, for in-service teachers who wish to receive training.

Several attempts to provide PD to in-service teachers in rural areas have proven successful. As a possible solution to teacher shortages in rural areas, rural schools sometimes have “grow your own” programs within schools where teachers are given incentives to complete PD or university coursework to complete ESOL endorsement (Bérubé, 2000). In a study of in-service teachers, Newman (2010) explored the factors that could influence teachers’ willingness to participate in PD related to ESOL and found that teachers were more willing to participate when there was minimal or no cost for tuition, courses were offered nearby and during the summer, free textbooks were provided, or courses were offered via distance learning. The results show that teachers were willing to take courses if barriers to their participation were eliminated or lessened.

Distance learning partnerships are ideal for geographic areas where there are not local educational institutions to provide PD opportunities. Often they include synchronous video conferencing that allows the students and instructor to discuss, ask, and respond to questions (Akmal & Maring, 2004). There are many positive aspects of distance learning. First and foremost, teachers in rural communities have access to educational opportunities they might otherwise not have had (Goodwin, Arthaud, Ragan, & George, 2005). In addition, both the professors and teachers do not have to travel long distances to attend class. Goodwin et al. also mention that distance learning may help the relationships between rural communities and the

university: “The fact that ITV [interactive television] courses are offered to rural locations helps university/small community public relations, potentially increases knowledge and collaboration among rural schools and, in our case, furthers our university’s public affairs mission” (p. 253). These projects often have other supports in place to provide assistance with technology. The benefits of distance learning courses include their convenience and accessibility to students. Teachers gain resources and ideas from the distance learning format (Gaudelli, 2006). Also, distance learning courses may challenge instructors to expand their teaching repertoire. For instance, in Conway’s (2000) study of three faculty members who taught through ITV, she found that some teachers focused more on student learning or becoming more intent to interact with students. The instructors made necessary adjustments to the curriculum or instruction to reach students.

Research indicates many positive aspects of distance-learning, but it also reveals some concerns. In a collaborative self-reflection study, four instructors who provided ITV courses reported they received little training about Interactive Television (ITV) courses and technology, had difficulty in scheduling courses, struggled to form collaborative groups, and experienced stifled classroom dynamics (Goodwin et al., 2005). Even with the help of a facilitator, there were technical difficulties, problems with communication, and delays in distributing materials. Instructors spoke to the loss of valuable class time because of technology challenges and delays in transmission which lead to frustration and social distancing. In addition, it was difficult to have discussions, teachers at remote sites didn’t participate, and there was less engagement from teachers at the host site. One instructor in the study concluded, “ITV technology forces a compromise in good teaching” (p. 250).

From the critical self-reflection of these four teacher educators and researchers (Goodwin et al. 2005), it becomes apparent that there are many advantages and disadvantages of interactive television for teacher preparation. Teachers found constraints on their teaching because of the technology and they expressed concerns for the quality of teaching and learning that took place. In addition, none of the teachers felt a sense of fulfillment or the thrill of shared understanding from the interactive courses. However, the teachers reported that through the ITV experience, teachers in rural communities were able to access educational opportunities. The researchers suggest that ITV courses could help with communication and partnerships between the university and rural communities, a relationship that could bring benefits to both sides. Furthermore, the authors suggest research is needed on how ITV influences a community of learners, both in what they are able to learn but also how it affects the interactions, relationships, and social dynamics of the classroom. They also recommend that program evaluation needs to go beyond identifying the number of students involved in ITV courses to seeking to understand the nature and effect of these courses.

Challenges in distance learning were reported by not only instructors, but students also. Lesniak and Hodes (2000) explored the perceptions of class interactions of 47 undergraduates enrolled in distance learning courses. The instructor made several visits to the remote site to develop stronger relationship with class members, but despite that effort, all off-site learners disagreed with the statement that the instructor was accessible. In addition, a majority of the respondents said they couldn't identify students at other sites, did not know students from other sites, and said they did not volunteer in class discussions because they didn't know each other. A majority of students reported it was more difficult for the instructor to understand learner problems in distance learning classes, and a majority reported they were distracted by the

videoconferencing equipment. Though the students reported many challenges, Lesniak and Hodes concluded these concerns become less of a challenge as students continue to take distance learning courses and become more familiar with the mode of delivery.

Notably, instructors in both Lesniak and Hodes (2000) and Goodwin et al.'s (2005) studies made several visits to the offsite location to interact with the students and develop relationships with them. The instructors in Goodwin's study found the traditional meetings to be the most efficient and productive sessions of the semester. Learners in Lesniak and Hodes' (2000) study found that it was difficult for the instructor to understand learner problems when he was at the off-site location. These studies seem to suggest that while distance learning provides an educational opportunity, face-to-face interactions are also important for developing relationships and meeting the learners' needs.

The challenges of distance learning go beyond how participants interact and how accessible they find the instructors. Distance learning also impacts what participants learn from each other. Yang and Liu (2004) surveyed 128 participants who were involved in Taiwan's digital school, a Web-based K-12 PD effort that provided online workshops, video streams, threaded discussion boards, live chats, and files for download. Participants reported they benefitted from their participation in the program, but through an analysis of the documents, researchers found their participation was not highly interactive or reflective. In addition, most of the interactions were found to be between learner and content, rather than learner to learner or learner to instructor. Other research had similar findings; interactions were "one-way serial monologues" where discussions lacked integration, resolution of ideas, or challenges to ideas (Pawan, Paulus, Yalcin, & Chang, 2003, p. 137).

Given the challenges of social relationships, accessibility to teachers, interactions among sites, and technology glitches, researchers have made recommendations for creating strong distance learning practices. Feldman, McElroy, and LaCour (2000) put forth 14 guidelines that emphasize faculty's control over the content, their preparedness to teach through distance learning, students' understanding of the course requirements, opportunities for personal interactions and advising, and course content that offers the same amount of material and depth as a classroom-based course. Recognizing the many potential impediments to distance learning, Feldman et al. provide these recommendations, among others, to improve quality distance learning programs and encourage distance learning programs to reach high standards.

Experiential Knowledge

A conceptual framework as a “system of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs, and theories that supports and informs your research” (Maxwell, 2005, p. 33) has helped to inform the present study in terms of its design and all aspects of the research, from developing research questions, selecting appropriate methods, and providing a lens to interpret the phenomenon. As Maxwell (2005) notes, a theoretical framework for a study should not just rely on a review of previous research, but should also be informed by the researcher's personal experiences. Toward the goal of describing how my experiential knowledge contributes to the conceptual framework of this study, I provide a brief overview of my experiences related to ESOL education.

Through my professional experiences I have had many opportunities to interact, discuss, and plan with classroom teachers. While working as an ESOL paraeducator with elementary and high school students, teaching English to professionals and university students in Mexico and to adult immigrants in the United States, and providing PD opportunities to K-12 teachers, I learned

about some of the challenges teachers face when working with ELs. Many mainstream classroom teachers wanted to help ELs, but they didn't know how. Or other responsibilities in the classroom restricted the amount of time they could spend with the ELs, they didn't have resources, or training to make lessons meaningful. Other teachers expressed negative attitudes about the ELs in their classrooms; common misconceptions were that ELs knew more English than they were letting on and that parents of ELs didn't care about education. Even though some teachers made modifications for the ELs, others were resistant to even giving them more time. The various responses of the teachers led me to think about how mainstream in-service classroom teachers who are trained in ESOL methods, concepts, and theories would respond to ELs. This experiential knowledge laid the ground work for some of the questions for the current study.

In addition to observing firsthand classroom teachers' responses to ELs, I witnessed how the small community where I taught reacted to the arrival of a large meatpacking plant and the changing demographic of the population. The community was caught in a paradoxical relationship where they wanted to help the new families but also did not want to see changes to their community. Some businesses and community services responded by offering basic Spanish classes to their employees and explored ways to welcome the new families to the community. However, other community members responded by discussing the need for more police officers and jail space. I began to think about how the community's response influenced the schools and vice versa. As most of the teachers involved in KPD are from small communities with an increasing number of Spanish-speaking families, my experiential knowledge was useful as it helped me consider the interplay of the community context and the school environment.

Moreover, this experiential knowledge informed my research with KPD in that it partially shaped the design, guided the questions asked, and contributed to the analysis.

This study was further shaped by my own experiences with TESOL courses. I completed similar classes that the KPD teachers were taking. However, I took the courses in the traditional format, where students and teachers came together for a class session. During class, students could rely on their personal experiences about being language learners or immigrants, discuss events that happened that day with ELs, or ask for input about a particular situation with an EL. I was learning not only from reading the course materials, but also from interacting with my classmates and the instructor.

As the graduate research assistant with KPD, I assisted instructors as they taught various courses; helped instructors with technology, graded teachers' assignments, exams, and projects; and developed course material under the direction of the instructors. I communicated with the teachers by providing feedback, answering questions, clarifying assignments, and asking for missing assignments. When I began work with the KPD project, I noticed interactions seemed limited to questions provided by the instructors and short responses from teachers. From my observations, it seemed the types of interactions which led to further reflection and dialogue were infrequent in the KPD courses. I wondered if these interactions were usual features of distance learning and online courses or if they were just particular to these instructors and teachers. Furthermore, I wondered if these interactions were necessary in effectively educating teachers who work with ELs. Without these conversations, could teachers apply what they were learning to the classroom? Could they have the chance to challenge their own beliefs and assumptions about language learners and second language acquisition? Did the courses bring

about any change in their teaching practices? With these questions in mind, this research design and more formal research questions began to emerge.

Lastly, building on my master's thesis related to bilingual paraeducators, I conducted a study about mainstream classroom teachers' perspectives of an additive bilingual program. Though many of the teachers believed in the importance of bilingual education, they struggled to include bilingual lessons as part of their day (Summers, 2008, 2010). I saw a disconnect between what they believed to be helpful for students and what they did in the classroom. This prior research helped inform the current study in that it provided insight into teachers' ideas, meanings, and values about a related topic (Maxwell, 2005). This previous study led me to question the connection teachers make between theory and practice and how they explain their decisions in the classroom.

As my experiential knowledge related mainly to teachers and PD, I set out to study KPD in-service teachers and their experiences and perspectives. However, the focus of the research project expanded to include those of other stakeholders involved in KPD. The purpose of the study shifted from understanding teacher perspectives to understanding the KPD program.

Summary

This study is based on a conceptual framework that suggests ELs need support in the classroom, classroom teachers are responsible for teaching them, and PD opportunities can help teachers become better prepared to meet the needs of ELs. To have effective university and district PD partnerships, there must be careful planning, stakeholder buy-in, and district support. PD opportunities related to ESOL must provide teachers not only with tools and techniques they can use in the classroom but also the knowledge of the theoretical underpinnings that inform those practices. In addition, distance learning in rural areas provides teachers with access to

graduate courses, but technology challenges shape the group dynamics and participation. Lastly, my experiential knowledge related to teachers and TESOL provided insight to designing and carrying out the research. The current study builds on this research by exploring a university and district partnership that offered ESOL PD to teachers via distance learning.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

Overview of the Study

University programs designed to meet the PD needs among classroom teachers who are working with EL populations in K-12 classrooms require extensive research for several reasons. First, providing PD to in-service teachers is complex, and many factors of the community, schools, and university context play a role in how the PD is carried out and how various stakeholders experience the program. Second, teachers, school administrators, university instructors, and program staff may have different expectations and goals for PD programs, what they should include, and how they are implemented; these differences in expectations can result in conflicts and tensions. Third, PD programs are often studied from the perspective of either teachers or university instructors, and this narrow focus leaves much of the complexity of teacher education programs largely unexplored. If we are interested in how these programs serve teachers, schools, and universities, we must explore the issues from multiple perspectives and within the context of the participants' professional lives. The method selected for this research allows for the examination of divergent perspectives of multiple groups of stakeholders in the university, school, and community. This chapter begins with a discussion of the research purpose and design of this study. I elaborate on specific elements of the research design and discuss my informed decisions in designing, conducting, analyzing, and reporting on this study.

Research Purpose

In this qualitative case study I explore the perspectives of those involved in the Kansas Professional Development (KPD) program, which provides ESOL training to in-service teachers through a partnership between a public research and teaching university in Northeast Kansas and nine school districts in Southwest Kansas. The study participants include university professors,

program directors, and a program evaluation team at Wheat University in Northeast Kansas and program coordinators, school administrators, ESOL support staff, and in-service teachers in Southwest Kansas. The purpose of this qualitative study is to understand KPD by exploring stakeholders' experiences with the program, and their perspectives of its design, implementation, and effectiveness within their various contexts. To this end, this study of KTP explores the following research questions:

1. What is the nature and effect of KPD as experienced by various stakeholders?
2. What do these experiences indicate about the overall success of KPD?
3. What can be learned through an in-depth understanding of the experiences and perspectives of the stakeholders?

Research Design

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is an approach to research in which an attempt is made to understand human behavior, the interactions of individuals with the world, and the meaning people give to both their behavior and interactions. A basic idea in qualitative research is that "meaning is socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world" (Merriam, 2002, p. 3), and essentially, a qualitative researcher is interested in understanding how people "make sense of phenomena from the participant's perspective" (p. 6). As qualitative research is a study of a particular group of people in a specific context (Merriam, 2002), qualitative researchers recognize that there can be multiple constructions of reality and that these constructions can change over time or across contexts (Firestone, 1987). In contrast to the positivist paradigm in which an "objective" researcher carefully controls the environment, the treatment, and the intervention of the extraneous variables to provide an empirical result that is widely generalized

to other populations (Firestone, 1987), qualitative research allows for the researcher to acknowledge the subjective nature of the research and examine a variety of factors and relationships within a context to provide a rich description of the phenomena (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The current study, a naturalistic inquiry, follows a particular set of guidelines for conducting qualitative research.

Naturalistic Inquiry

Naturalistic inquiry is a qualitative research approach found within the naturalist paradigm. In naturalistic inquiry, the researcher (1) takes into account multiple and constructed realities, (2) considers the relationship between the knower and the known, (3) develops an idiographic body of knowledge, (4) avoids making linkages between cause and effect, and (5) recognizes that inquiry is value bound (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 37). Given my aim to observe, document, analyze, and interpret multiple constructions of social phenomena in particular contexts from the view of participants in those contexts, I determined naturalistic inquiry was an appropriate approach. Naturalistic inquiry allowed me to explore multiple perspectives to gain a holistic understanding of KPD in the context of Kansas and recognize my own role as the researcher and graduate research assistant as I negotiated meaning with participants.

The axioms of naturalist paradigm have implications for how researchers operationalize their studies. Lincoln and Guba (1985) provide fourteen characteristics of operational naturalistic inquiry that are “justified in two ways: (1) by their logical dependence on the axioms that undergird the paradigm, and (2) by their coherence and interdependence” (p. 39). These characteristics include: natural setting, human instrument, utilization of tacit knowledge, qualitative methods, purposive sampling, inductive data analysis, grounded theory, emergent design, negotiated outcomes, case study reporting mode, idiographic interpretation, tentative

application, focus-determined boundaries, and trustworthiness. I will highlight (and boldface in the text) how the KPD study addresses these characteristics in the following sections of this chapter.

Case Study

Case study research design allows for coherence among the characteristics of naturalistic inquiry that Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest. A case study is an “intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit” (Merriam, 1998, p. 27), and several aspects of the case study design make it a particularly appropriate approach for the current study. First, a case study is ideal for research in which a single entity, or a “bounded integrated system,” is the unit of interest (Merriam, 2002, p. 8). A bounded system is one with a finite quality about it with regards to time, space, and other components; the purpose of the current case is to understand the nature and effect of KPD as a bounded system situated in the context of Kansas and as told by various KPD stakeholders.

Second, the case study method is appropriate when researchers want to explore the contextual conditions and not just the phenomenon of study (Yin, 1993). Yin (2003) explains further, “The case study is the method of choice when the phenomenon under study is not readily distinguishable from its context” (p. 3). In other words, when complex interactions abound, it is hard to separate them from one another. In the current case study, the context of KPD matters a great deal. For instance, in-service teachers are in schools that are geographically distant from the university environment and they are experiencing demographic changes to their communities and schools with an increase in the number of ELs. Furthermore, the teachers, along with other KPD stakeholders, must respond to pressures from funding agencies, state policies, and their

professional roles; together these pressures and participants' responses and perspectives about them shape their experiences with KPD.

Third, in case study research, data from multiple sources are collected and integrated to form a holistic understanding of the phenomena. Case studies allow for "multiple and not singular sources of evidence" (Yin, 1993, p. xi); various data sources were gathered about KPD to present a complex description of the program. Data sources included interviews, participant observation, and document review. In addition, a variety of perspectives were gathered from various vantage points within KPD. The various strands of data were interwoven to contribute to a holistic understanding of KPD.

Several other characteristics of the case study design are also relevant. In a case study, the selected case must be common enough to be understood, but not so common that it is unnoticed. Stake (2003) explains that researchers seek "both what is common and what is particular about the case" but in the end, the analysis results in something that is uncommon (pp. 139-140). KPD represents a common case because it is one of many teacher education programs attempting to meet the needs of mainstream classroom teachers working with ELs. It is unique in that it uses distance learning to bridge the literal and metaphorical distance between two contexts and among groups of participants. Furthermore, this study is exceptional in that the boundaries around the KPD case are broad enough to include the perspectives of various stakeholders and their experiences as situated in their particular contexts.

Stake distinguishes between intrinsic case studies, which are undertaken because the particular case is of primary interest, and instrumental case studies in which the case is secondary and is used to facilitate understanding of another issue. While Stake distinguishes between the two types of case studies, he also admits there is no clear distinction between them at times and

suggests there is instead “a zone of combined purpose” (p. 445). The KPD case study falls within this zone as the goal is to gain an ideographic understanding of KPD as a means to provide more general insight into the nature of university programs that provide ESOL training to in-service teachers.

Stake (2005) states, “A case study is both a process of inquiry about the case and the product of that inquiry” (p. 444). Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that naturalistic inquiry often takes the form of **case study reporting**, because it is a mode that is “adapted to a description of the multiple realities encountered at a given site” (p. 41). The researcher can reveal a consideration of interactions with the participants and research site and discuss potential biases through reflective reporting. A case study report as a product is particularly suited for naturalistic inquiry; through “thick description” (Geertz, 1973), a case study report makes “clear the complexities of the context and the ways these interact” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 214). This case study of KPD is richly descriptive and reveals the complex nature of providing TESOL PD to in-service teachers through distance learning. Through the case study report, I reveal multiple perspectives of stakeholders, consider the interplay between me and the research participants, and document how the context shapes participants’ experiences and perspectives of KPD. Case study reporting is well-suited for naturalistic inquiry because it is flexible enough to allow for the inclusion and discussion of the complexity in a case.

Naturalistic inquiry results in a case report that is both idiographically interpreted and tentatively applied. Rather than making broad generalizations, a researcher in naturalistic inquiry provides an **ideographic interpretation** of the data, meaning that researcher draws conclusions in terms of the particulars of the case. Lincoln and Guba (1985) state “[D]ifferent interpretations are likely to be meaningful for different realities” and suggest that because the interpretations

rely so heavily on contextual factors and the interaction between researcher and participants, they can only be applied to the particular case under study. As such, the researcher must provide the reader with “a vicarious experience of the setting” which may make the report seem “grounded, holistic, and lifelike” (p. 214), so that a **tentative application** of the findings can be made. In the case study report, a detailed account of the multiple realities, the value positions of the researcher, methodological decisions, and theoretical underpinnings has been provided to allow the reader to make a judgment of similarity “between sending and receiving contexts” (p.297) to determine if the interpretations can be transferred. With the current study, sufficient descriptive data are provided about KPD and the sending context, so that judgments of similarity can be made. The criteria of transferability and how this study addresses it will be discussed in further detail in a later section on trustworthiness.

Research Site

Naturalistic inquiry is carried out in the natural setting or the context of the phenomena under study because “realities are wholes that cannot be understood in isolation from their contexts” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 39). This study was conducted in the **natural setting** for KPD which included Wheat University and KPD classrooms in Northeast Kansas, and communities and nine school districts in Southwest Kansas. The distance between the university and the sites in Southwest Kansas ranges from 284 to 396 miles. Given that KPD cannot be understood without a consideration of the realities of the university and rural education, information about both Wheat University and Southwest Kansas are given here to contextualize KPD and this study. Though the context matters a great deal to this study as stakeholder perspectives and experiences with KPD were shaped by factors outside of KPD, it is beyond the scope of this study to provide an in-depth picture of all of the contextual factors at play.

TESOL Program at Wheat University

Wheat University is situated in University City, an urbanized area with a population of 87,643 people (United States Census Bureau, 2010) and is located within 100 miles of four of the five other urbanized areas in Kansas. Wheat University is a public research and teaching institution in Northeast Kansas with a full-time equivalent enrollment of roughly 24,000 in 2008 (Kansas Higher Education Reporting System, n.d.). Most of the students both at the university and within the school of education are traditional full-time students (Office of Institutional Research and Planning), and Wheat University typically does not enroll many students from Southwest Kansas. For example, in the fall of 2007, the semester before KPD started, just 289 undergraduate and graduate students from counties where KPD teachers were from were enrolled (Office of Institutional Research and Planning).

The TESOL program within the school of education enrolls students who are seeking their bachelor's, master's, or doctoral degrees. The program aims to prepare individuals to become ESOL teachers or K-12 ESOL-endorsed classroom teachers. The number of students admitted provides an idea of the size of the program; from the fall 2008 semester to fall of 2009, the program admitted 53 students in the TESOL program, 15 of whom were international students. As told by faculty members, the program has seen a recent shift in the student population; there are more K-12 classroom teachers seeking an ESOL endorsement and relatively fewer students pursuing advanced degrees in TESOL. As a result of the shift in clientele, the TESOL faculty continues to revise the courses to meet the changing needs of the students. Also important to note is that faculty have facilitated several local TESOL PD programs for groups of in-service teachers.

Southwest Kansas

The KPD communities in Southwest Kansas are quite different from the Wheat University community, and there are significant differences in the communities themselves. KPD teachers came from nine school districts; three of the communities where these districts are located are categorized as urban clusters; two have populations over 20,000, and the other has a population of just under 4,000 (United States Census Bureau). Six of the KPD districts are in rural communities where the population is less than 2,300, and four of these rural communities have populations of less than 1,000. The closest urbanized area (defined as having 50,000 people or more) is 200 miles away or more from these nine school districts.

The population demographics of the communities in Southwest Kansas and the city where Wheat University is located suggest significant differences in sociocultural contexts. University City has greater racial diversity than all except possibly the two largest communities represented in KPD, but it can be reasoned that much of the diversity comes from international faculty and students at the university. In comparison to University City, most of the KPD communities have a large population of “Hispanic or Latino” (of any race); in four communities, the Hispanic or Latino population is more than 30 percent (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008-2012 American Community Survey). Even though University City is similar to some of the KPD communities with regards to the percentage population that speaks a language other than English, the languages spoken are different. To illustrate, in all except for one of the Southwest Kansas communities—where 5.8% of the population speaks an Indo-European language—Spanish is the predominant language other than English. In University City, it is estimated that 3.9% of the populations speaks an Asian or Pacific Islander language and 3.6% speaks Spanish (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008-2012 American Community Survey).

Other differences between the communities in Southwest Kansas and University City center on the demographics and sources of industry. In recent years the population demographics have shifted in Southwest Kansas, and these shifts continue. The region became increasingly diverse as immigrant and migrant families arrived to work at the meatpacking plants that were built in the 1980s (Broadway & Stull, 2005), feedlots, and dairies. Even though education, health, and social services are key sources of industry in both contexts, University City's main industries are leisure (arts, entertainment, recreation, accommodation, and food services) and retail trade; in KPD communities, manufacturing, construction, and agriculture are major sources of industry (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008-2012 American Community Survey). Educational attainment of the residents (defined as the percentage of population 25 years and older who are high school graduates or higher) further illustrates the difference in the two contexts; in University City the educational attainment is higher than the state average of 89%, but only one of the KPD communities in Southwest Kansas exceeds that of the state level (U.S. Census Bureau).

Particularly relevant to the current study is the EL population. While KPD doesn't involve schools in University City, information about the EL population helps contextualize the two KPD areas. In University City, ELs were 5.5% of the district population in the 2007-2008 academic year, and it rose to 7.2% in 2010-2011 (KSDE Building Report Cards). In University City, the percentage of the EL population was below the state average of 8.2% in 2007-2008 and 9.8% in 2010-2011, but in all but one case in Southwest Kansas, the EL population was higher than the state average. Furthermore, even within recent years most of the school districts have

had an increase in their ESOL population (Table 1).¹ As evidenced by the data presented, the KPD communities have quite a bit of variation among them. As an illustration, community A is in a really small community, with few ELs, little diversity, and high educational attainment of the residents; community F is the 15th largest city in Kansas, Hispanics or Latinos constitute half the population, 44% of the student population are ELs, and the educational attainment is lower than the state average. In other words, the Southwest Kansas context is different from the university, but it also has significant variation within it.

The selected information presented here situates the KPD program in the Kansas context and suggest meaningful differences between University City and communities in Southwest Kansas. Given these facts, there is not only geographic distance between the contexts, but metaphorical distance, as well; these two areas are very different based on the demographics, industry, and educational characteristics. While these contextual factors suggest significant contrasts, other factors not presented here are arguably just as important. For example, research suggests that teacher attitudes regarding immigration and the education of ELs vary depending on the community context (Walker et al., 2004), and teachers' pressures in urban and rural areas differ (Abel & Sewell, 1999). It is beyond the scope of this study to address the myriad factors that demonstrate the differences between these two contexts, but the information presented suggests that the contexts differ in meaningful ways.

¹ For this study school districts have been labeled with letters which correspond to the participant identification codes. For instance, District A has research participants: Administrator A and Teachers A1, A2, A3, and A4. In the presentation of data, teacher participants are identified by a letter which indicates their district and a number which indicates an arbitrary participant number within a district. This system not only allows the reader to match up the participant with relevant information about the district but also provides a way to examine patterns within a district. Furthermore, coding the participants and districts in this way addresses issues of trustworthiness and transferability, as the reader can more easily examine the audit trail.

Table 1

Community Statistics

Characteristic	School Districts									
	UC	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Population	87,643	867	310	966	20,525	2,094	26,658	2,216	306	3,904
Race										
W	82.0	96.3	96.1	95.7	68.6	86.6	74.7	87.7	87.3	87.0
B	4.7	0.1	1.6	0.1	3.7	0.3	2.8	0.3	0.3	0.3
AI/AN	3.1	0.1	0.3	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.9	0.9	0.0	0.8
A	4.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	2.9	0.2	4.4	0.0	0.3	0.2
Other	1.6	1.7	1.9	0.0	20.8	9.2	14.2	8.7	11.4	10.1
Two	4.1	1.3	0.0	0.8	3.2	3.2	2.9	2.4	0.7	1.6
% Hispanic or Latino	5.7	4.6	5.2	11.0	58.7	32.5	48.6	28.9	22.5	36.4
% Other than English	11.7	12.7	9.0	8.2	56.3	13.9	39.8	16.9	41.0	30.6
% Spanish	3.6	11.3	4.5	1.5	52.2	12.8	35.5	15.6	40.5	28.3
% Foreign Born	8.0	7.3	8.6	5.2	32.4	6.2	20.4	9.8	15.5	20.8
Ed. Attainment	95.2	90.3	70.1	69.1	67.4	86.1	70.9	74.5	59.6	73.5
EL Student Population										
2007-2008	5.5	8.3	45.0	18.1	45.4	12.3	35.5	25.3	31.0	20.9
2010-2011	7.2	8.2	68.2	24.2	55.6	15.3	44.5	33.8	23.3	32.3
Industry by employment	E L R	E M R	E C A	E A W	M E R	E R T	E M R	E A T	A R O	E A C

Note: UC refers to University City. Race categories given in percent of total population are W (White), B (Black), AI/AN (American Indian and Alaska Native), A (Asian), Other (Some other Race), and Two (Two or More Races) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Hispanic or Latino refers to the percent of the population who identify as Hispanic or Latino (from any race) when presented with the binary of “Hispanic or Latino” or “Not Hispanic or Latino.” Foreign born is the percent of population born outside of the U.S. (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008-2012 American Community Survey). The category of “Other than English” refers to the percentage of the population that speaks a language other than English; and percentage of the population that speaks Spanish or Spanish Creole is highlighted because it is the predominant language in most KPD communities. *EL Student Population* refers to the percentage of the student population who are English Learners (KSDE, Building Report Cards, 2007 - 2008 and 2010-2011). The top three industries, defined by the number of civilians employed, are listed for each community: A (Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting, and mining), C (Construction), M (Manufacturing), W (Wholesale Trade), R (Retail Trade), T (Transportation and warehousing, utilities), E (Educational, health, and social services), L (*leisure* for arts, entertainment, recreation, accommodation, and food services) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008-2012 American Community Survey). Education attainment is defined as the percentage of population 25 years and older who are high school graduates or higher (2005-2009 American Community Survey).

Kansas Professional Development

Kansas Professional Development (KPD) was a five-year National Professional Development Program funded under the Office of English Language Acquisition in the U.S. Department of Education. The grant of almost \$1.5 million dollars was managed by an educational research center, the Institute, whose stated mission was to provide faculty with infrastructure to support research as well as help schools and educational agencies respond to educational initiatives. As stated in the original grant application, the goal of the grant was to increase the number and effectiveness of ESOL-endorsed teachers in the state of Kansas with the primary purpose of providing ESOL PD to in-service teachers in Southwest Kansas and a secondary purpose of offering tuition assistance for pre-service teachers on campus who were interested in pursuing an ESOL endorsement along with their initial licensure. The main focus of this study is the portion of the grant that served in-service teachers in Southwest Kansas.

School Districts

KPD provided PD to in-service teachers serving in nine school districts in Southwest Kansas. According to the grant proposal for KPD, many school districts in Southwest Kansas expressed great interest in the project due to the low number of teachers with ESOL endorsements serving a population with many ELs. However, KPD records indicate that some districts that completed the initial steps of demonstrating the need for ESOL-endorsed teachers by describing the teacher turnover rate and documenting a high number of ELs later decided not to participate (KPD data source, 2008). In the end, teachers from nine school districts in Southwest Kansas participated in KPD, though not all districts participated at the same time. A few districts were added and other districts were no longer involved near the end of the program as the teachers had finished their coursework or chose to complete the Praxis exam.

Recruitment

According to the grant application, it was expected that 50 in-service teachers in Southwest Kansas would become ESOL endorsed and the KPD application stated, “Recruitment won’t be a problem” (KPD data source, 2007). The recruitment of in-service teachers was a shared responsibility among KPD staff, educational center project coordinators, and school district administrators. A rubric was created to ensure that priority for admission to KPD would be given to in-service teachers who served students in high need areas, who taught secondary math, English, history, or science, and who agreed to take three courses per year. Furthermore, KPD required demonstrated district-level support, demonstrated building-level support, and teachers’ ESOL plan of study to be on file with the district. As recruiting proved to be more challenging than expected, admission requirements became more lenient, allowing elementary teachers and teachers serving in low needs areas to be accepted into the program.

Coursework

As written in the original grant proposal, the KPD grant planned for the in-service teachers to take five graduate-level courses—to include Diagnosis and Remediation in Second Language Education, Developing Intercultural Awareness in the Second Language Classroom, Language Analysis for Teachers, Second Language Acquisition, and Teaching English as a Second Language and Bilingual Education Methods—to complete their TESOL training at the university. At the completion of the five courses, the teachers were to complete a semester-long practicum under the supervision of a Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) faculty member. The final step in becoming an ESOL-endorsed teacher was to receive a passing score on the Praxis II ESOL Subject Assessment (Praxis).

The KPD courses were delivered to the remote sites in Southwest Kansas through distance learning. Five of the nine districts had their own distance learning site with only teachers from their district attending, and two additional remote sites had teachers from two different districts joining together to take the courses. Three of the courses (second language acquisition, methods, and diagnosis and remediation) were provided through interactive videoconferencing which allowed for real time, face-to-face audio and video interaction. The instructional site and each of the distance classrooms were simultaneously connected, so that teachers and instructors could communicate synchronously with those at other sites. The original grant application also called for a summer course in which the TESOL instructor would travel to Southwest Kansas to present a two-week course delivered face-to-face to in-service teachers; however, this course did not materialize. Although most of the KPD courses were taught through video conferencing, the Intercultural Awareness and Language Analysis for Teachers were entirely online courses.

For all of courses, instructors used Blackboard, an online course management tool, to distribute course materials such as syllabi, handouts, assignments, links, videos, and audio recordings. Through the Blackboard site the instructor presented additional topics for discussion, collected assignments, provided feedback and grades, and administered online assessments. In addition, for some of the courses, class sessions were recorded and placed online, so students who missed class or needed to review the material could access it.

Support

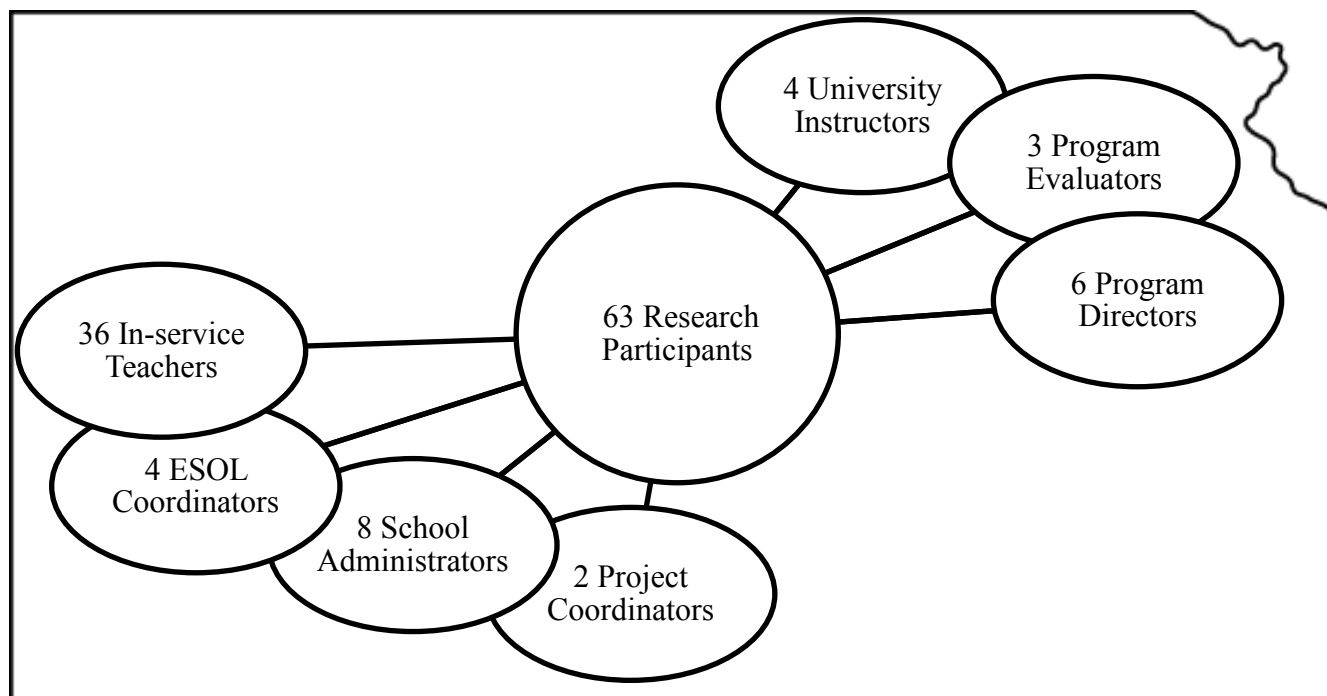
KPD provided both financial and instructional support to in-service teachers. The KPD grant paid the tuition upfront for all teachers who were admitted to the program, and this support continued as long as the teachers continued to enroll in ESOL courses. While the textbooks were

not covered by KPD, some districts purchased them for teachers' use. In addition, the teachers could be reimbursed for the cost of the Praxis exam upon successful completion. Besides the financial support, the KPD grant application stated that teachers would receive instructional support from instructional coaches in Southwest Kansas who would attend university course sessions, observe classroom instruction at least three times a semester, and offer feedback and suggestions based on observations.

Research Participants

Purposive sampling was used to ensure that “the full array of multiple realities [was] uncovered” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 40) among KPD stakeholder groups. Research participants included university instructors, program directors, and evaluation team members at the university in Northeast Kansas and project coordinators, school administrators, ESOL coordinators, and in-service teachers in Southwest Kansas (Figure 1). In naturalistic inquiry, purposive sampling maximizes the information available to the researcher as a large and diverse sample is sought to “detail the many specifics that give the context its unique flavor” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 201). Each of the stakeholder groups in this study had a unique position within KPD and the participants varied in how they experienced KPD. Moreover, purposive sampling was sought within the stakeholders groups; this is particularly evident in the case of in-service teachers where the sample included teachers from the nine school districts that participated in KPD.

Figure 1

KPD Research Participants**University Instructors**

Four university instructors (two male and two female) taught the KPD courses. Three of the four were faculty members from the TESOL program in the Curriculum and Teaching department at Wheat University who helped design and implement the program and teach the courses to teachers in Southwest Kansas. One of the faculty members was also the principal investigator for the grant. Two of the faculty members were tenured when KPD began, and the other was untenured at the time but has since become tenured. Two courses were taught by lecturers; one was interviewed, and the other declined to participate in this study. I conducted interviews with the university instructors to learn how the instructors became involved in the project and how they made decisions about curriculum, instruction, and delivery. In addition, I

worked with three faculty members in designing activities for class, grading KPD teachers' assignments, and observing teachers for the practicum course.

Program Directors

In the five years of the KPD project, six people (five female and one male) served as KPD program directors. Their time as directors with KPD ranged from six months to two years. Four of the directors had Ph.D. degrees in education, and the other two had master's degrees. The directors differed in their experiences with ESOL education; some had little or no interaction with ELs, others have worked with EL in their own K-12 classrooms, and one has a Ph.D. in the field of TESOL. I worked with four of these directors in my capacity as a graduate research assistant with KPD and conducted interviews with all of them to understand the management of KPD from the initial stages of writing the grant to planning for the no-cost extension year.

Evaluation Team

The grant proposal for KPD called for an outside team to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. As suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985), the design of a naturalistic inquiry must be “‘played by ear’; it must unfold, cascade, roll, emerge” (p. 209). Initially, I did not plan to interview the evaluation team about their involvement with KPD. However, after conducting interviews with other stakeholders, it became apparent that their perspectives would add another dimension to the study. The evaluation team, with two tenured faculty members at Wheat University and a graduate research assistant (all male), was responsible for carrying out the evaluation plan for KPD with input and feedback from KPD staff and TESOL faculty. My contact with the evaluation team began when I was preparing the research proposal for this dissertation study, and a member of the team invited me to attend weekly meetings to learn more about the evaluation efforts. As communicated with members of this group, I assisted in updating

KPD files on teachers' progress in the courses, extending the team's research efforts in Southwest Kansas, and reviewing the team's written reports. I provided information about teachers' placements in school and their contact with ELs for inclusion in their reports. To further my understanding of their work, I also conducted a focus group interview with the three members of the team at one of the weekly evaluation team meetings to learn about their interactions with the KPD staff, the research they had done, and how that information had been distributed.

Project Coordinators

Through a contract with a regional educational center in Southwest Kansas, two project coordinators (both female) provided additional support to in-service teachers. These coordinators helped facilitate the relationship among the university, school districts, and teachers; helped recruit teachers for the program; and communicated the logistical details of the program, such as enrollment procedures or upcoming courses, to the in-service teachers. The project coordinators were to act as instructional coaches in the teachers' classrooms by observing them in the classroom at least three times each semester and supervising teachers enrolled in the practicum course. The coordinators provided teachers with materials about ESOL and information about best practices for working with ELs. They also attended the courses at times to communicate with the KPD participants, answer their questions, and ensure connectivity through the distance learning equipment.

The project coordinators were employed and contracted through a regional educational service center which made arrangements for the distance learning technology for KPD. This center offered Praxis prep sessions (taught by one of the KPD project coordinators with her colleagues) to teachers and districts in Southwest Kansas with the goal of providing the

information necessary for the teachers to successfully pass the exam and become ESOL endorsed. These prep sessions were not a part of KPD, but some of the KPD in-service teachers took them in preparation for their exam. The education center also provided PD and networking opportunities to districts in Southwest Kansas. In my position as a graduate research assistant, I communicated with the project coordinators participant progress and upcoming courses and enrollment, and collaborated with them on supervising the practicum course.

Administrators

School administrators in Southwest Kansas were contacted to help recruit and distribute information about KPD to teachers. District administrators and building principals were requested to send a letter of support to KPD for their teachers to be admitted to the program. Some administrators communicated with the teachers about their district policy requiring teachers have an endorsement within a certain number of years of their initial employment with the district. KPD also arranged for the educational center to schedule monthly meetings for district ESOL directors and administrators to discuss ESOL issues and to develop supportive environments in their schools. These meetings were intended to provide information to the participants but also to receive feedback from the field about ways to adapt the project to increase effectiveness (KPD data source, 2007).

I interviewed eight school administrators (seven male and one female), six who were building principals and two who served the dual role of building principals and district superintendents (Table 2). Two districts with high ESOL populations had ESOL directors and I chose to interview them instead of the building principals. These school administrators were selected to “maximize information” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 202) and to include participants from a variety of school contexts.

Table 2

School Administrator Participants

Participant	Role	ESOL Population of School	Number of KPD Participants in District	Sex
A	Elementary School Principal	Low	5	Male
B/C	Middle School Principal and District Superintendent	High	3	Male
C	Elementary and High School Principal	Moderate	3	Male
E	High School Principal	Low	10	Male
E	Middle School Principal	Low	10	Male
G	High School Principal	Moderate	11	Male
H	Superintendent	Moderate	4	Male
G	Elementary School Principal	Moderate	11	Female

Note: High ESOL populations are defined as having 35% or more of student population identified as ELs, moderate from 11 to 34%, and low 10% and below.

I collaborated with a project coordinator in Southwest Kansas to gain access to the school administrators. I did not know any of the administrators prior to this research, and the project coordinator acted as a “gatekeeper” and introduced me to them. I sent an email to the project coordinator about my intentions to conduct research and she forwarded my email to the in-service teachers and the school administrators along with her own introduction and description of my research. A few administrators contacted me directly to arrange a meeting time, and I followed up with the others to arrange a meeting.

ESOL Coordinators

District ESOL coordinators were responsible for coordinating services for ELs, administering English proficiency tests, and recording ESOL-endorsed teachers’ contact time with students for the purposes of federal and state reporting and funding. In smaller districts the

coordinators administered the language proficiency tests but spent most of their time providing direct services to the students. In the larger districts with higher number of ELs, the ESOL directors communicated with the teachers about ESOL endorsement programs and worked with them to continue with their plan of study. In these larger districts, the ESOL coordinators were considered part of the administrative team and generally did not have direct contact with students.

I interviewed four female ESOL coordinators in Southwest Kansas; two were at large districts with a high number of ELs with 35% or more of the student population identified as EL (Districts D and F), one was at a district with a moderate number of ELs, with an EL population between 11 and 34% (District G), and the other was at a small district with an ELs population of lower than 10% (District E). In addition to these four participants, I interviewed an in-service teacher who served as the district's ESOL coordinator (Teacher A2). The ESOL coordinators are identified in the findings with "ESOL" followed by the letter which represents their district.

In-service teachers

The 53 teachers who participated in KPD came from nine school districts in Southwest Kansas, and at least 17 different elementary, middle, and high schools (Table 3). For this study, I limited the research participants to those who had enrolled in at least one KPD course, which eliminated four students who had been admitted to KPD but did not enroll in any courses. At the time of the interviews, nine of the in-service teachers had moved or changed schools, and as I did not have current contact information for them, I did not attempt to interview them. I was unable to meet with four in-service teachers because of scheduling conflicts and family emergencies. The research participants were the remaining 36 in-service teachers who had enrolled in a KPD

course and were in the same districts they were teaching in while taking the KPD courses or in a nearby district in Southwest Kansas.

All except for three of the teachers identified themselves as White; one did not identify his race and the other two identified themselves as something other than White. Thirty-four of the participants were native speakers of English. Twenty-five of the in-service teacher participants were female, and 11 male. The ages of the in-service teacher participants at the time of the interview and observations ranged from 25 to 66, with an average age of 43 years. At the time of the interviews, the teachers' experiences in teaching in the K-12 setting ranged from 3 to 35 years (average 13 years), and they had between 3 and 32 years in their current positions with the districts (average 7 years).

The in-service teachers represent a variety of grade levels and content areas. The participants include 14 elementary, 6 middle school, and 16 secondary school teachers among the nine school districts. The elementary school group includes teachers from preschool to fourth grade, and the middle and secondary school teachers include math, science, social studies, English, computer, and physical education teachers.

Table 3

In-Service Teacher Participants

Teacher	Sex	Age	School	Total Years	Years in District	Cohort	Status
District A	<i>(Low district EL population)</i>						
A1	Female	57	E	16	10	1	C
A2	Male	45	E	-	-	2	C
A3	Female	41	H	20	10	1	C
A4	Female	54	E	14	14	1	NC
District B	<i>(High district EL population)</i>						
B1	Male	26	M	5	3	2	P
B2	Female	27	M	-	-	3	NC
District C	<i>(Moderate district EL population)</i>						
C1	Male	54	E, M, H	31	3	3	NC
District D	<i>(High district EL population)</i>						
D1	Female	26	H	4	3	3	C
D1	Female	28	H	3	3	3	C
District E	<i>(Low district EL population)</i>						
E1	Female	39	H	7	3	3	P
E2	Female	48	H	12	7	3	P
E3	Female	55	H	33	17	3	NC
E4	Female	27	H	4	4	3	NC
E5	Male	32	M	10	2	3	NC
E6	Male	53	H	22	-	3	NC
E7	Female	30	H	6	6	3	P
E8	Female	59	M	21	6	3	NC
E9	Female	25	E	3	3	3	P
E10	Female	26	E	-	1	3	NC
District F	<i>(High district EL population)</i>						
F1	Male	27	E	4	4	2	C
F2	Female	60	E	35	4	3	P
F3	Female	55	M	33	32	2	I
F4	Female	47	E	4	4	2	C
District G	<i>(Moderate district EL population)</i>						
G1	Female	55	H	18	15	1	C
G2	Male	35	H	7	7	1	NC
G3	Male	40	H	18	18	1	P
G4	Female	27	E	5	5	1	C
G5	Female	42	E	6	6	1	C
G6	Female	64	E	22	5	1	C
G7	Female	48	E	26	6	1	C
G8	Male	66	H	-	7	1	NC

(table continues)

In-Service Teacher Participants (continued)

Teacher	Sex	Age	School	Total Years	Years in District	Cohort	Status
District H	<i>(Moderate district EL population)</i>						
H1	Male	49	M	27	8	1	I, P
H2	Female	33	E	7	7	1	P
H3	Female	35	E	8	8	1	P
District I	<i>(Moderate district EL population)</i>						
I1	Female	55	H	32	5	1	P
I2	Male	63	H	-	-	1	I

Note: Teacher participants are identified by a letter which indicates their district and a number which indicates an arbitrary participant number within a district. *Total Years* refers to the teachers' cumulative teaching experience and the dash [-] indicates that the information was not collected during the interview. *E, M, H* for school indicates the school, elementary, middle school, or high school, respectively. *P, C, NC, and I* in the column of status refer to teachers' completion of the program; Praxis, completer, non-completer, and incomplete courses, respectively. High EL populations are defined as having 35% or more of student population identified as EL, moderate from 11 to 34%, and low 10% and below.

At the time of the interviews and data collection process, the in-service teachers were at various stages of KPD and ESOL endorsement process. Those who completed the coursework from cohort one finished their last KPD fall 2009, cohort two finished spring of 2011, and cohort three finished in the fall of 2011. I interviewed 16 of the 24 members of cohort one, 4 of the 6 members of cohort two, and 15 of the 23 members of cohort three. When I conducted interviews in 2011-2012, five of the in-service teachers from cohort three were enrolled in KPD courses, three of whom eventually completed all coursework. Of the 36 in-service teachers who participated in this study, 12 completed all the KPD coursework and successfully completed the Praxis to become ESOL endorsed. Sixteen of the research participants had stopped taking ESOL coursework from KPD but became endorsed by taking and passing the exam.

Upon the suggestion of a KPD project director, I collaborated with a project coordinator in Southwest Kansas to communicate with teachers about the study, ask for their participation, and arrange times for meetings. Glesne and Peshkin (1992) suggest that in gaining access to

participants, the researcher be “introduced by an intermediary whom the gatekeepers or potential participants know and respect. The others then have a way to check you out—to find out informally who you are, what you are like, and whether they would mind having you around” (p. 34). In this study, the project coordinator acted as this intermediary, providing me access to the school gatekeepers or building principals and the teacher participants. In my position as a graduate research assistant, I had previous contact with many of the KPD participants and felt that I could contact these teachers directly. However, I did not know some of the teachers from cohort one, and by initiating the contact through the project coordinator, I thought the response rate from teachers would be better because of that existing professional relationship.

I sent an email to the project coordinator in Southwest Kansas to be forwarded along to the in-service teachers. I introduced myself as a doctoral candidate in TESOL and a graduate research assistant with KPD. In this email I detailed my research interests and told teachers I was interested in their perspectives regarding the strengths and challenges of the program. I asked the in-service teachers for their participation in both interviews and observations, and briefly mentioned why this study would make a contribution to the educational field. The project coordinator in Southwest Kansas forwarded my email to the in-service teachers along with her own introduction and description of my research. Some of the teachers contacted me directly after this first email to set up a time for me to interview them and observe in their classrooms, and others contacted the project coordinator to arrange a meeting. I followed-up with the other teachers through emails and phone calls to arrange meetings.

When designing this study I did not expect to interview 36 in-service teachers. As I learned more about the teacher characteristics, however, I discovered much variety among the teachers and I wanted to ensure that a range of demographics were represented. To include the

“broadest range of information possible” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 233), I used purposive sampling of the teachers to gain maximum variation among the participants. I interviewed and observed teachers from each cohort group, from each participating school district, in various stages of program completion, at different levels of teaching, and with differing district EL populations. If I had interviewed fewer teachers, it’s conceivable that I may have neglected to include the perspectives of a certain segment of the KPD population. By casting a wider net, I attempted to achieve greater credibility and trustworthiness in my findings. In addition, I expected more teachers to decline to participate because of time constraints and scheduling conflicts, but was pleased to learn that so many of were willing and available to participate.

To understand KPD, it was important to understand both the perspectives of members in different groups involved in the program and how the participants interacted with each other and KPD in general. I was also interested in teasing out if and how the expectations and goals of the different groups of stakeholders compared and contrasted, and how external pressures influenced the stakeholders’ roles within KPD.

Researcher Role

As a qualitative researcher serves as a **human instrument** and is able to adapt and “adjust to the variety of realities that will be encountered” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 39), it is important to situate the researcher in the context of the research. Maxwell (2005) explains that one concern of qualitative research is “understanding how a *particular* researcher’s values and expectations influence the conduct and conclusions of the study” (p.108). Throughout my study, I was keenly aware that my position as a graduate research assistant (GRA) with KPD shaped the research design, analysis, and findings. And so, with Maxwell’s recommendations in mind, I

explore below my own biases and experiences with KPD to illustrate how they may have influenced the research.

Within the naturalist paradigm, the researcher must embrace “reactivity” and examine how the participants and the context of the study are influenced by the researcher’s participation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In my capacity as a GRA with KPD, I worked alongside stakeholders to implement and evaluate the program, and my research with KPD undoubtedly influenced the program. A specific instance of where the lines blurred between my role as a researcher and GRA stands out. As I started to work out details of the research design for this study, I began to attend weekly meetings with the evaluation team to better understand KPD. My attendance at the meeting was motivated by my research; however, when I conducted an interview with them almost a year later, evaluators pointed to my participation as a factor that led to increased communication with directors and the rest of the KPD stakeholders. Through reflexivity, described as the process of recognizing and examining oneself as the research and the research process (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995), I reflected on how my participation shaped the program, the study, and the participants (see further details in Appendix C and D).

My position as a GRA with KPD has both advantages and disadvantages for the current study. I came to the research with prior background information about KPD, including the history of the grant, its intended goals, the key stakeholders, and some of the strengths and challenges of the program. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest the researcher engage in “prior ethnography,” to become “a participant observer in a situation for a lengthy period of time before the study is actually undertaken” (p. 251) to gather information and become familiar with salient features of the intended study. My role as a graduate research assistant with KPD allowed for the **utilization of tacit knowledge** as my familiarity of KPD combined with other educational

experiences and intuition shaped how I gathered and analyzed data. For instance, even before the start of my formal study of KPD, I had been learning about the instructors' perspectives of the program and views of teachers through informal conversations after class, during meetings, and through emails. I heard the teachers' frustrations in emails and during class sessions as they asked questions about the courses and assignments, and I experienced the challenges of communicating with teachers and project coordinators who were about 400 miles away. I was familiar with many of the KPD documents including course syllabi, teachers' written assignments, the KPD grant application, progress reports, annual reports, and other documents.

Because I had worked and communicated with many of the participants through my position prior to the onset of the study, we had some shared experiences and had established rapport. This was particularly helpful in bringing about a richer and more complex story of KPD. I was able to refer to incidents, ask specific questions about the program, and probe the participants to provide a more detailed and nuanced account of their experiences. My experience with the program also proved valuable in interviews with instructors and directors as we could discuss and analyze particular experiences together. Thus, by combining my prior knowledge of the program with the interviews from the participants and a review of the KPD documents, I was able to "gain a broader and more secure understanding" of KPD (Maxwell, 2005, pp. 93-94).

There were also disadvantages of being involved in KPD both as a GRA and researcher. Like every researcher, I came to the study with particular biases. Maxwell (2005) suggests that qualitative researchers can deal with potentially ethical issues by identifying them and making them explicit to the reader. In this study, I was cognizant of possible biases and made every attempt during observations, interviews, analysis, and the writing process to minimize their impact and to document in researcher memos how they may have altered the research. With the

goal of making these biases explicit and making the process of reflexivity transparent, in Appendix D I highlight a few instances where biases may have come into play.

Data Gathering

Information about the experiences and perspectives of the KPD stakeholders and the KPD was gathered from several sources. Lincoln and Guba (1995) state that **qualitative methods** are often used within naturalistic inquiry, because “the human-as-instrument is inclined toward methods that are extensions of normal activities: looking, listening, speaking, reading, and the like” (p. 199). The qualitative data for this study comes from interviews, participant observation, and a document review. I will describe each of these data sources and discuss what types of information were sought for each.

Interviews

Following the recommendations of Rubin and Rubin (2005), I regarded interviews as “structured conversations” in which a detailed and written interview protocol helped to keep the conversation on topic while eliciting “depth, detail, vividness, richness, and nuance” in the responses (p.129). The interviews were semi-structured, meaning that I had carefully organized main interview questions and some potential probes, but the participants and I negotiated the interview together and followed the flow of conversation.

Pilot test. Before embarking on the interviews with the KPD participants, I followed the suggestion of Maxwell (2005) to conduct a short pilot test to examine and refine the methods of data collection. After receiving feedback about my interview questions from two university faculty members and a doctoral student, I revised the interview protocol to have more purposeful questions and to better reflect my research interests. Then, as suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985), I conducted mock interviews with two appropriate role stand-ins: a doctoral candidate

familiar with KPD and an in-service teacher who had experience with ELs. Additional revisions were made to the interview protocol to help the flow and sequence of the questions, address additional areas of interest, and make the questions clearer.

Initial interviews. I conducted semi-structured interviews with 63 research participants; four university instructors, six program directors, three members of the evaluation team, two project coordinators, eight school administrators, four ESOL coordinators, and 36 in-service teachers. My purpose in interviewing the various KPD stakeholders was to understand their experiences with KPD and learn how they perceived its goals, implementation, and effectiveness. An additional goal was to contextualize KPD in Kansas, the university, and the school districts. Since each group of research participants had different roles in the program and viewed the program from a unique position, I adjusted my interview protocol for each specific group but addressed many of the same topics (see Appendix B). I began each interview with “grand-tour” questions which encouraged the participants to warm up to the interview process while also providing information about their context (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 270; Spradley, 1979). Questions became more specific during the interview as the participants and I discussed how KPD started, their experiences with it, and what they perceived to be the strengths and challenges of it.

I revised my interview questions somewhat throughout the data collection process. Arthur and Nazroo (2003) note that the first episodes of data collection are part of the familiarization process and “not until a topic guide has been used in the field that it is possible to understand how it will work in different situations” (p. 135). They suggest researchers fine-tune the interview protocol after the first couple interviews to allow for a more natural order of questions, to add or remove topics and follow-up questions, or to revise language or ways of addressing

topics that may have been problematic. While I was conducting the interviews, I reflected about the interview guide and how participants responded, and I revised questions that appeared to be problematic or encouraged the participants to answer in particular ways. The final version of the interview protocol can be found in Appendix B. The initial interviews were conducted individually, except in the case of two teachers who were interviewed together because of scheduling conflicts, and the three members of the evaluation team who requested to be interviewed together. I visited with each of the participants face-to-face, except for one who, because of the distance, was interviewed through email. The length of the interviews averaged about one hour for all participants except for the university instructors, whose interviews lasted on average just over two hours. The initial interviews with participants yielded 61 hours of interview data.

With the participants' permission, the interviews were recorded. I also took notes of major ideas; note-taking was a strategy for recording and organizing my thoughts while also jotting down follow-up questions (Arksey & Knight, 1999; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba mention that silence in an interview is sometimes a useful probe, because the participants want to fill the space. At times, I used my note-taking as a way to allow the participants to pick up the conversation where they wanted. The recording device failed in the case of one interview, and my notes were essential in creating a record of the participant's perspectives.

The interviews of 52 of the 63 participants were transcribed in their entirety using the transcription tool, HyperTRANSCRIBE™. As transcriptions are a construction of an oral conversation to written text (Kvale, 1996), I recognize that transcription is interpretive process in which I made principled decisions on how to represent the participants' responses. Attempts were made to transcribe fillers, repetitive words, and false starts as these features of language

may carry meaning. With the realization that I had reached a point of saturation (Agar, 1996; Bowen, 2008; Lincoln & Guba; Mason, 2010) and the satisfaction that the teachers whose interviews I had transcribed represented a range of demographics (including KPD completion status, cohort, level of teaching, ESOL population within the districts, and home district), the interviews of the remaining 10 teachers and one ESOL coordinator were not transcribed completely. Rather, I listened to the recordings, summarized sections of the interviews, and transcribed “juicy quotes” (D.D Stull, personal communication, October 5, 2012) that were particularly illustrative or compelling.

After conducting the first round of interviews, I began the process of transcribing while at the same time collecting data from other teachers and KPD research participants. During this stage of the research process, I considered emerging themes, noted areas where additional information was needed, and wrote researcher memos where I began to analyze the data and connect comments from participants (Maxwell, 2005). Coffey and Atkinson (1996) suggest that as qualitative researchers, “We should never collect data without substantial analysis going on simultaneously” (p. 2). Their position is supported by Merriam (2002) who states, “Simultaneous data collection and analysis allows the researcher to make adjustments along the way, even to the point of redirecting the data collection, and to ‘test’ emerging concepts, themes, and categories against subsequent data” (Merriam, 2002, p. 14). As I was involved in various stages of the research process at the same time, I could clarify topics with participants, analyze the emerging themes together, and seek more information. The continuous data collection and analysis was critical to the **emergent design** of this study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) as it allowed me to take into account new information and let the design of the study naturally unfold throughout the study. Furthermore, I was able to alter the focus of the study as new and relevant information

emerged. As this study progressed, the **focus-determined boundaries** (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) became more defined with the increased understanding of the research problem, the nature and effects of KPD, and I was able to narrow the scope of the study based on interactions with participants and a better understanding of the context of the study.

Follow-up interviews. In an attempt to triangulate the data and conduct a member check with the participants, I conducted follow-up interviews with participants in Southwest Kansas. Although the process of verifying and confirming the interpretations occurred in interactions with the participants throughout the KPD study, the formal process of follow-up interviews allowed for **negotiated outcomes** in which I provided some of the facts and interpretations to participants for their scrutiny (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba describe the member check phase in which the researcher develops a provisional report to take back to the participants for their review; “The task is to obtain confirmation that the report has captured the data as constructed by the informants, or to correct, amend, or extend it, that is, to establish the credibility of the case” (p. 236). Furthermore, they suggest that in naturalistic inquiry that the meaning of the data and the interpretations should be “subjected to scrutiny by respondents who earlier acted as sources for that information” (p. 213). In anticipation of conducting follow-up interviews, I kept memos about areas for further exploration. In addition after initial interviews, I presented my preliminary findings at two conferences, and through conversation with other conference participants, I discovered additional topics that I could explore in the follow-up interviews. The follow-up interviews included a presentation of my preliminary findings intertwined with additional questions. I also asked participants to reflect on their experiences of being a participant in the research (Researcher memo, July 27, 2012).

In the follow-up interviews I focused on participants in Southwest Kansas. I conducted 22 follow-up interviews with eight administrators, a project coordinator, an ESOL coordinator, and 12 in-service teachers. In determining which participants I'd interview, I considered cohort groups, completer status, district EL population, and years of experience of the 36 in-service teachers. I attempted to get a varied sample of teachers while also taking into account the quality of their initial interviews, the insights they provided, and the diversity of opinions represented. The interviews averaged 58 minutes, yielding 17 additional hours of recorded data. In the interest of time and with consideration of how the transcriptions would be used (Kvale, 1996), I did not transcribe the follow-up interviews verbatim; rather, I summarized most of the interviews and transcribed selected segments. The follow-up interviews served the purpose of testing for the accuracy of the facts and interpretations, but also guided the writing of the final case report (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Other KPD participants, such as directors and instructors, would have provided additional input, but because of the constraints of time and resources and my prolonged engagement with these participants, follow-up interviews were not conducted.

Participant Observation

Agar (1996) explains that participant observation, “suggests that you are directly involved in community life, observing and talking with people as you learn from them their view of reality” (p. 163). Toward those ends, this study included several domains for participant observation, at the university and schools in Southwest Kansas. On the university side and in my role as a graduate research assistant with KPD, I attended weekly videoconferencing classes for two semesters and helped with a summer online course. In each of these courses, I participated, observed, and interacted with instructors and teachers. I also participated and observed as I attended meetings, read emails, and talked to KPD staff and in-service teachers throughout my

three years with the program. I maintained notes about my interactions with different KPD stakeholders and the events that took place.

I also engaged in participant observation while I was in Southwest Kansas. During my first two-day visit in 2011, I observed several teachers enrolled in the practicum course and met informally with various stakeholders. Over the next year, I spent five weeks in Southwest Kansas to collect data, interact with teachers and administrators, and learn about the communities. During these visits, I participated in various aspects of the teachers' school days, ultimately spending 41 hours directly observing the teachers in the classroom with particular attention to how they interacted with their students, used ESOL strategies, modified their instruction, and spoke with ELs. In addition, I talked with the teachers informally during passing periods, transition times, or other meetings. I also attended sporting events in which the teachers collected money at the gate, served as scorekeepers, or coached the high school teams.

After observing the teachers' classroom activities, I shifted my focus to turning my "head notes" and scribbled notes into fieldnotes. Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (1995) explain the process when, "Momentarily out of the field, the researcher sits down to the task of turning recollections and jottings into detailed written accounts that will preserve as much as possible what she noticed and now feels is significant" (p.39). I began by writing painstakingly detailed fieldnotes, but I soon experienced many of the challenges that Agar (1996) mentions; in an attempt to "vacuum up everything possible," I was left with fieldnotes that distorted the results and left me with a "stereotypical conceptualization" of the events (p. 162). In addition, I realized the volume of data gathered through the observations and interviews was too great to complete the research in a timely fashion. Rather than turning the "jottings" into full fieldnotes as is suggested by Emerson et al. (1995), I made a principled decision to leave most of my fieldnotes as there were

and instead focus on the interviews as the primary data source. Furthermore, in becoming more familiar with KPD and the focus-determined boundaries of the study, I discovered teachers' classroom interactions with ELs and their classroom practice was largely outside of the focus of the study. Nevertheless, the observations proved to be valuable experiences as they helped me build rapport with the teachers and created common experiences that informed the interviews process; teachers and I often referred back to what I had observed in the classroom as a means of discussing their experiences with KPD. From the observations, I was then able to explore their viewpoints about theories and practices related to their KPD experiences.

Document and Records Review

Ritchie (2003) states that, "Documentary sources may also be needed when situations or events cannot be investigated by direct observation or questioning" (p. 35). Although the interviews and participant observation make up the bulk of the data gathered for this study, the original grant application, recruitment letters and information to potential participants, participation agreements, course rosters, student progress information, course syllabi, annual reports, evaluation briefs and reports, class notes and board meetings notes from the service center, and KPD meeting notes all provided information that I used to verify and corroborate the data gathered from other sources. I also gained knowledge about Southwest Kansas from newspapers, school and city Internet sites, individual teachers' school Web sites, class schedules, information from library bulletins, and other community resources. With the permission of teachers, I gathered and reviewed assignments submitted for their ESOL courses which provided some insight into their EL populations, their perspectives of working with ELs, and the strategies used in their classroom. Together these documents and records serve to both provide the

rationale and inner workings of KPD from a programmatic angle, as well as to situate the program within the context of Southwest Kansas.

Ethical Issues

Approval was obtained from the University Human Subjects Committee to conduct this study and analysis (see Appendix A). All interview participants were presented with the approved informed consent statement, given the opportunity to read the statement, raise questions or concerns regarding the purpose or nature of the study, and then indicate their consent in the research by signing the document. By signing, participants agreed to allow the use of statements for the purpose of the study (Kvale, 1996), and they gave verbal consent for me to record the interview. The statement of informed consent noted that any information the participants provided during the course of the research would be kept confidential, and data reported or published from the study would not disclose individual names or identifying information. However, instructors, program directors, project coordinators, and school administrators were notified that because of the limited number of participants and the inclusion of contextual elements in this research, it would be possible that the program, the university, and therefore, the participants would be recognized. Although I could not guarantee confidentiality to the participants, I've made attempts to disguise individual identities and have omitted some characteristics of individual research participants (such as their age, sex, or ethnicity) so that they could not be easily identified. In addition, I have carefully considered the implications of revealing information that could have negative repercussions for participants and their ability to work together in the future. To further protect research participants, recordings, participants' responses to interviews, fieldnotes, and other documents were kept in a locked location and were viewed only by the researcher.

Throughout the dissertation process, I struggled to decide whether the university should be named in the final write-up. On one hand, I wanted to identify the university because it seemed honest and direct, and recognized the potential for the participants to be identified. Being transparent about the research site would give participants the opportunity to respond to the findings and clarify their positions. On the other hand, creating a pseudonym for the university and the program is considered a common practice in academia that could potentially mitigate the risk to the participants.

I considered many factors and viewpoints which eventually led me to the decision not to name the university, program, or districts. I knew going into the research that it would be likely that participants at the university, or those working on the program could be identified. In-service teachers in Southwest Kansas would less likely be recognized as there were nine districts, many participants, and the dissemination of the study would be years removed from when teachers participated in the program. Even though the university stakeholders could be easily identified, I hoped to better protect the confidentiality of participants in Southwest Kansas by not naming the university and the program.

The topic of confidentiality was a concern throughout the research process from the early stages of developing the research proposal to writing the final drafts of the report to presenting and defending my work. My researcher notebooks document conversations with committee members where we discussed how to best protect the participants, how the decision might be different for a dissertation versus a journal publication, and how to reduce the potential harm to participants. Some committee members recommended that I identify the university because it seemed so obvious and others urged me to err on the side of caution. I weighed these options in

my researcher memos (Researcher memos, June 27, 2012; August 24, 2012; September 11, 2012; October 4, 2014). I wrote:

There are several elements of naming the university and the program that I will want to consider in the write up of my dissertation. If I don't name them and say that the research was done at a "Midwestern University," it gives the appearance of confidentiality and protecting the participants. However, any reader could easily figure out that the program that I worked for and where I got my degree. Basically by not naming the university, I only protect the participants in appearance but offer no real protection (August 24, 2012).

I considered removing the study from the Kansas context, but this option would do little to protect the participants and weaken the argument that the context matters. I also thought about not discussing my involvement as a graduate research assistant in the report to make the university less obvious, but reflexivity seems to be integral to the research process and findings.

In the end, I decided not to name the university or the program. Initially, I made the decision because it was choice that I could most easily defend as it most closely aligned with academic traditions. I reasoned that this route would better protect the participants while allowing me to situate the study in Kansas. Because I made this choice for the written report, when I discuss my work with colleagues, teachers, and other Kansans, I do not disclose identifying information about the university, program, districts, or participants. This decision has prevented further conversations about people or districts that may have been involved in the study and instead focuses the conversation on the findings and implications. I also found that when I finally made the decision to use pseudonyms, I was able to distance myself a bit from the program and the participants which facilitated the writing process.

Overall, decisions about how to represent participants while also protecting their confidentiality were not easy to make. I considered the advantages and disadvantages of each option, and selected one that seemed to minimize the risk while allowing for a meaningful study. This decision was one of many principled decisions or “informed compromises” (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2000) I made in conducting this study and I recognize the implications of this choice.

Data Analysis

Qualitative researchers describe several characteristics of data analysis within the naturalist paradigm that are particularly relevant to the current study. First, data analysis is an ongoing process in which data collection and analysis are integrated, rather than isolated steps of the research process (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Emerson et al., 1995; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2002; Skrtic, 1985). Kvale (1996) suggests that even interviews are part of the analysis and interpretation process in that the researcher must consider when to probe for more information. Throughout my study, I engaged in the simultaneous process of data collection and analysis as I conducted interviews, transcribed, and coded the data. Throughout the study, the ongoing analysis of data guided further data collection and analysis, and as I learned more about KPD from the multiple perspectives of the participants, I was able to ask more pointed questions and refine my initial interpretations.

Second, researchers conducting naturalistic inquiries use **inductive data analysis** as a means of “making sense” of the data. In the inductive process, the researcher begins with the data and from them arrives at “theoretical categories and relational propositions” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 333) through unitizing and categorizing. In “unitizing” or coding the data the researcher identifies “single pieces of information that stand by themselves” (p. 203). Coffey and

Atkinson (1996) describe coding as a process which links the data to the researcher's analytic ideas. They state:

It is worth stressing here that codes are organizing principles that are not set in stone.

They are our own creations, in that we identify and select them ourselves. They are tools to think with. They can be expanded, changed, or scrapped altogether as our ideas develop through repeated interactions with the data (p. 32).

The dynamic nature of the coding process is relevant to the current study. As I transcribed interviews, I recorded potential codes on notecards, which resulted in 119 codes. Codes included: academic diversity, partnership, KPD as collective experience, funding message, EL population, teachers' understanding of ELs, unintended benefits, researcher position and influence.

Writing researcher memos facilitated the process of coding; many of the initial codes came directly from the researcher memos that I had written while transcribing and the interviews. I entered all the codes in a table and grouped them under major categories; for example, the category KDP coordinators included the codes: limited experience, curiosity, professional experience, intimidation, formal education in ESOL, practical experience in ESOL, disconnected, and personal investment. I also included codes related to the research process, such as building rapport, interactions with teachers, position as researcher, and ethical considerations.

Using HyperRESEARCH™, a software program that facilitates the coding, retrieval, and analysis of data, I used open coding at the beginning of the coding process to entertain all analytic possibilities (Emerson et al., 1995). I segmented or decontextualized the interview transcripts line-by-line so that each incident and idea was given a code (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). During this analytic process of applying codes to the data, I used "data reduction" to obtain manageable segments of data with the same code, and "data complication" to open up the

possibilities and explore new ideas (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). Though open coding at the beginning was useful for generating many codes and viewing the data in a many different ways, as particular categories began to emerge, I followed the recommendation of Emerson et al. (1995) and moved to selective or “focused” coding of rich points (p. 155). I combined, separated, and revised codes as I attempted to define and discover the boundaries of the codes, and the use of HyperRESEARCH™ allowed for me to re-code or revise a code easily. I documented my decisions related to the process of coding in researchers memos (Researcher memos, August 7-September 27, 2012; August 13, 2013).

In addition to unitizing or coding, inductive data analysis also includes the process of categorizing, which Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe as the process of putting the unitized data into tentative groups based on their “look-alike” characteristics. The researcher uses the “constant comparative method” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to compare each unit to the others to determine the appropriateness of fit within a category. These categories become more defined and focused as units are added and rules for inclusion or exclusion are created (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Through this process of categorizing, themes and relationships among the themes are discovered which leads to a particular construction of the case. In other words, through unitizing and categorizing the units, a theory or construction that helps to explain what is being encountered is developed. This is the basis of **grounded theory**, in which it is assumed that no *a priori* theory could anticipate the many realities encountered in the context of the study and constructed in the interactions between researcher and participants (Lincoln & Guba, p. 205). A grounded theory is one that will “fit” the case under study without being forced, and will “work,” meaning that it must be relevant to and explain the behavior that is being studied (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The process of categorizing the units for the current study of KPD went through several drafts. Initially, the codes were categorized according to the stakeholder groups who were involved at different stages of the planning, implementation, and evaluation of KPD. Then, I categorized the codes according to the challenges or “distances” found within KPD. Finally, I decided to present themes according to the two primary contexts of KPD (the university and Southwest Kansas), the state of Kansas, and the interaction among them.

Establishing Trustworthiness

The basic issue of **trustworthiness** in naturalistic inquiry relates to whether the findings of the inquiry are “worth paying attention to” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 290). The naturalist paradigm establishes four criteria of trustworthiness (credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability) that correspond to the conventional terms of the positivist paradigm (internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity). In short, these criteria address the truth value of the inquiry (credibility) and the questions of applicability (transferability), consistency (dependability), and neutrality (confirmability) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Skrtic, 1985). In this study, the four criteria of trustworthiness were addressed through the strategies described below.

Credibility

Credibility is established when the researcher’s findings and interpretations are believable both to the research participants and the readers (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This inquiry used the techniques recommended by Lincoln and Guba and the “most weighty techniques” suggested by Skrtic (1985), including prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, and member checks, to enhance the credibility of the research.

Prolonged engagement. Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe prolonged engagement as the investment of time to learn the culture of the context, test for misinformation from the

participants or from the researcher's distortions, and build trust with the research participants. Maxwell (2005) supports the value of intensive, long-term involvement of the researcher in the study, and he notes that this engagement allows the researcher to collect not only more data but also data that are more varied. In addition, the sustained presence of the research can "help to rule out spurious associations and premature theories" (p. 110). For the current study, prolonged engagement allowed me to elucidate the salient aspects of KPD and "detect and take account of distortions that might otherwise creep into the data" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 302). As a previous discussion of my engagement indicates, I was involved in various aspects of KPD from January 2010 to August 2013, and I had prolonged engagement with the project itself and a number of the participants. This involvement was further intensified by interviewing the various stakeholders, observing in teachers' classrooms, and reviewing documents related to KPD.

Persistent observation. Persistent observation is a technique that allows for a depth of experience and understanding; the researcher identifies the "characteristics and elements in the situation that are most relevant to the problem or issue being pursued and focus[es] on them in detail" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 304). In the present study, persistent observation allowed me to "sort out the irrelevancies" and focus the qualities of KPD that participants and the theoretical underpinnings of the study suggested were significant.

Triangulation. Triangulation is the process of "collecting information from a diverse range of individuals and settings, using a variety of methods" (Maxwell, 2005, p. 112). In an effort to reduce systematic biases, I interviewed a wide range of individuals from different stakeholder groups and attempted to maximize the variation within each. Triangulation of methods in the present study was achieved by using different data collection modes, including

interviews, participant observation, and document analysis. Triangulation provided credibility by producing the similar data through multiple means.

Member checks. Member checks or respondent validation refers to asking participants to provide feedback about the data or the researcher's tentative interpretations to avoid making false conclusions (Maxwell, 2005). In this study, I asked the participants to review and reflect on my tentative analyses in the follow-up interviews to determine if the findings were credible. In conducting follow-up interviews with teachers and district administrators, I asked participants to respond to preliminary findings and provide their own interpretations. Ongoing conversations with faculty offered another way of conducting member checks. These member checks helped to further ensure the trustworthiness of my conclusions.

Transferability

Transferability relates to the extent to which the findings can be applied or generalized to populations outside the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The researcher must address transferability in naturalistic inquiry by providing thick descriptions (Geertz, 1973) of the context and phenomena studied. This is achieved, Maxwell (2005) suggests, through the collection of "rich data...that are detailed and varied enough that they provide a full and revealing picture of what is going on" (p. 110). From the interviews, participant observation, coursework, field observations, and other sources of data, I propose that I have sufficient "rich" data to form of a detailed account of KPD to be found in Chapter Four.

Dependability and Confirmability

Dependability is shown when the findings of the study are consistent and when the process of data collection, analysis, and theory generation are shown to be appropriate for the study. The criteria of confirmability relates to how the findings and interpretations of the study

are grounded in the data. For naturalistic inquiry, Lincoln & Guba (1985) recommend an inquiry audit conducted by an external auditor where both the process and product of the inquiry are examined to determine if the methods of the study are appropriate (Skrtic, 1985) and to demonstrate that the findings, interpretations, and recommendations are supported by data, and are internally coherent (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that the auditor examines raw data, analysis and synthesis products, process notes, reflexive memos, and information about any instrument that were developed to determine the coherence between the data and the findings. Then the auditor provides a letter of attestation as to whether the study has achieved dependability and confirmability.

Despite Lincoln and Guba's (1985) recommendation to conduct an inquiry audit, I did not conduct a formal audit for the present study. However, I have described in detail the "ethnographic path" (Sanjek, 1990) I followed, which documents clearly the decisions I made in the research process and the possible implications of these decisions. In essence, the audit trail is offered directly to readers, so they can inspect and verify for themselves the coherence between the data and conclusions. To meet the requirements of dependability and confirmability, I have made transparent the steps of my research and described the informed decisions I made throughout the inquiry as a means to ensure and illustrate that the findings and interpretations are supported by data (Golden-Biddle & Locke, 1993; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Furthermore, the chairperson of the dissertation committee along with other committee members with extensive experience in qualitative research reviewed, critically evaluated, and provided feedback about methodological decisions throughout the study, which in effect served as an ongoing dependability audit.

Reflexive Journals

Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommend the use of a reflexive journal or researcher memos as a technique to address the criteria of all four issues of trustworthiness. In the reflexive journal, the researcher “records a variety of information about *self* (hence the term ‘reflexive’) and *method*” (p. 327). Through the use of reflexive journals, researchers can examine potential biases and threats to validity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), explore how their positions may shape the study (Maxwell, 2005; Merriam, 2002), assess the potential risks for the participants (Watt, 2007), and consider potential power differentials in research relationships (Kvale, 2009). Through the process of reflexivity and writing memos, the researcher can enhance the transparency and accountability of their work (Finlay, 2002). For the present study, I relied heavily on these suggestions and approached researcher memos with “serious reflection, analysis, and self-critique” (p. 13). In this section, I will briefly describe the process of writing these memos and what I learned from engaging in the practice. With the goal of making the process of reflexivity transparent and highlighting the value of researcher memos, further information is found in Appendix D. As reflection is necessary at every stage of research, including selecting a research topic, forming research questions, interviewing, and writing (Davies et al., 2004; Guillemin & Gillam, 2004; Peshkin, 1988), I wrote researcher memos throughout the entire research experience, from reading and synthesizing relevant literature to designing the study, collecting and analyzing data, and writing my findings. In researcher memos during the data collection process, which amounted to roughly 200 single-spaced pages, I reflected on the relationship dynamics with each research participant group, the participants’ interviews, factors that might have influenced their responses, my position with KPD, and the process of becoming a qualitative researcher. I also used these memos to organize my thoughts and questions about

emerging themes and categories. The process of writing the memos strengthened this study as the ongoing analysis informed the data collection process, I documented the rationale for my research decisions, and many of the findings presented here were first developed in memos.

Summary

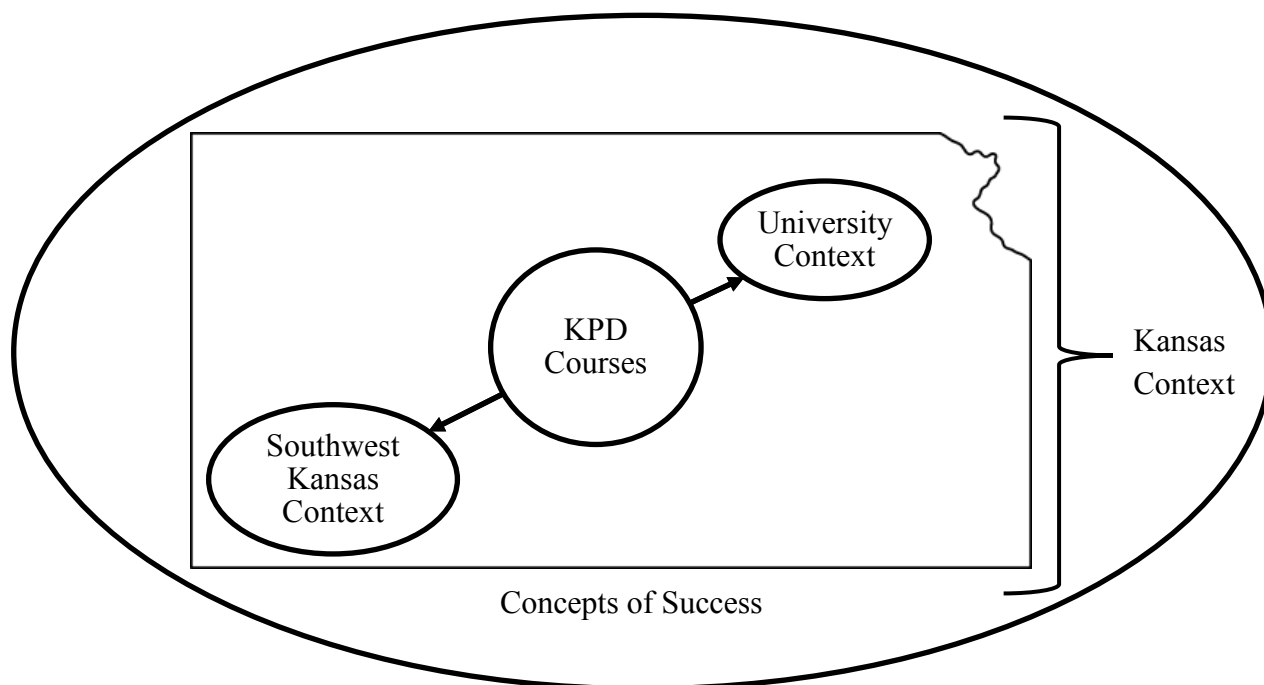
This naturalistic inquiry draws from interviews with 63 stakeholders, participant observations, and a document review to provide a detailed and nuanced case study of KPD. The analysis of data led to the following findings related to the context of the university, the context of Southwest, the Kansas context, the delivery and content of KPD courses, and concepts of success. The findings help to address the research questions related to the nature and effect of the KPD, the stakeholder experiences and perspectives, and the lessons learned from KPD.

CHAPTER FOUR: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

Introduction

As detailed in the previous chapter, this study used naturalistic inquiry to explore the perspectives and experiences of stakeholders involved in the KPD program. The following chapter includes findings from a constant comparative analysis of data sources that include interviews with stakeholders, participant observation, and a document review. Results are divided into five sections (shown in Figure 2). The first section focuses on the university context to highlight the tradition of grant-funded PD programs related to TESOL and instructors' involvement with KPD. The second section provides information about stakeholders in Southwest Kansas, which includes a description of the ESOL student population, the services provided by the nine districts, and teachers' understandings and perceptions of ELs and ESOL. Teachers' experiences with diversity and language learning, and teachers' responsibilities in schools and communities are also explored. The third section provides information about the context of Kansas related to ESOL funding at the time of the study and the process of ESOL endorsement. Section four describes the KPD courses in terms of content and delivery. Finally, section five explores participant definitions and perceptions of success. Through these sections, I describe and explain the KPD program and highlight the relationships among stakeholders within the context of the university, school districts, and the state of Kansas. A thorough analysis of these findings follows in Chapter Five to illustrate what can be learned through an in-depth examination of the KPD program.

Figure 2

KPD Study Components**The University Context**

University instructors were situated within the university context, where their experiences with KPD were shaped by factors external to the program. In a description of the university context, I describe the university's contribution and involvement with KPD, which includes a brief overview of grant-funded PD programs related to TESOL. I also discuss instructors' roles and motivations for being involved in KPD, their experience with Southwest Kansas, and what they believed teachers of ELs need to know.

PD Grants at Wheat University

The KPD grant began with conversations between Institute staff and TESOL faculty members. The Institute approached three faculty members and asked them to be named principal investigators on three grant applications, each focusing on a different region of Kansas and a

particular in-service group. Faculty members provided input, but the Institute took the lead in developing the proposed program and writing the grant application. When the KPD grant was awarded, one faculty member was named the principal investigator and the other two were listed as co-investigators. The details surrounding the writing of the grant application and the beginning stages of getting the program up and running were unclear to many research participants, either because they weren't there when the grant began or they were not involved in the process.

Several instructors and two of the directors had been involved with previous PD grants at Wheat University. The university and the Institute partnered with Kansas school districts to provide a series of TESOL courses to teachers to prepare them to meet student needs and to become ESOL endorsed. Previous grants offered tuition support to local teachers for traditional face-to-face classes. The National Professional Development Grant before KPD and the one following it had similar goals as KPD and were designed in much the same way with ESOL coursework, mentoring in the classroom, and instructional coaching (Director 1; Director 4; Instructor 1; Instructor 2).

Participants often compared and contrasted KPD to these other grants, and, in general, instructors and directors understood their experiences with KPD in the context of being sandwiched between the other two. For example, a director explained that she was “much more in the trenches” with the previous grant, but she “saw the same thing that had happened with [the previous grant] happen again with KPD, and the grants were written in a similar fashion without any kind of ramifications, any financial responsibility at all [for teachers]” (Director 4). She was also “shocked” to hear that the grants were perceived as failures because of the low program completion rate of teachers. The directors’ comments illustrate that she intertwines her

experiences with the KPD with the first program. Another example comes from a director who was a graduate research assistant with the previous grant, was a director with KPD, and then contributed to the writing and administration of the grant following KPD. When talking about the previous grant, she explained there was “commitment to that project” as the principal investigator was very “hands-on with everything” and “knew everything that was going on” (Director 1). She also noted that with the grant following KPD, the coordinator showed commitment to the program and knew all the details of it. In contrast, KPD was “nobody’s project.” Information about the other two PD grants at the university and participants’ experiences with them helps to situate KPD in the context of the university. The tradition of grant-funded PD programs and how they influence one another suggest the need for a holistic understanding of how university-school partnerships involve instructors and directors.

Instructors

Instructors’ roles, experiences, and level of involvement with the KPD program varied. The three TESOL faculty members worked with directors and coordinators to design, implement, and evaluate the program; the roles of the other two instructors, a lecturer and a graduate research assistant (who was not interviewed), were limited to teaching one online course each. Two of the faculty members taught several courses each, while the third taught only one course, oversaw the practicum course for one semester, and was the instructor of record for a course when a graduate student taught on her behalf. In this section I focus on TESOL faculty members who were KPD instructors and discuss their motivation for being involved in KPD, some of the challenges they experienced in their roles, and what they perceived teachers who work with ELs should know.

Instructor motivation. University instructors' motivation to work with the KPD program fell into the three themes of responsibility, professional growth, and service. They reported they wanted to participate in KPD and did it voluntarily; however, as we will see later, as the program was implemented, they realized that some of their expectations were not realized.

Natural extension of responsibility. Involvement with KPD was a natural extension of what faculty members were already doing in their roles as instructors in the TESOL department. One instructor, a faculty member in TESOL for 15 years, said that he was “naturally to be involved as a lecturer” (Instructor 2). He also said, “No one really forced me to do it,” and he described himself as “compliant and willing” from the beginning (Instructor 2). When he found out about the call for grant proposals, he responded, “Let’s apply for it very definitely and I’ll help out any way I can and if we get it, I’ll teach in it. I mean, I was—there was never really any hesitation on my part to be part of it” (Instructor 2). Another tenured instructor said that because of the nature of KPD as a grant that offered ESOL endorsement to teachers, the Institute needed the collaboration of faculty members to teach the courses (Instructor 3). This instructor, whose primary focus was on foreign language instruction, was already teaching a few TESOL courses for the department and reasoned that her participation in the grant was just a continuation of what she was already teaching (Instructor 3):

I did it because I didn’t really see a reason not to. I mean, I tend to be a collaborative person, so they were asking me to do it. And okay I’ll—well I’ll do it and that’s—it’s honestly—it wasn’t something that I thought, ‘Oh great, I always wanted to do this.’ No, but you know, I was doing it anyway. (Instructor 3)

The third TESOL faculty member, who was untenured at the beginning of the grant, concurred that being a being a part of KPD seemed like an extension of her responsibilities as a

faculty member; she explained, “We [The TESOL faculty] were all asked, but I didn’t feel like I had much choice. First of all because like I said, um as an untenured person, I thought that this was um, something that I needed to be involved in” (Instructor 1). She said, “Nobody twisted my arm, but it was obvious that all of us were going to take part in it. All of the faculty. There was no reason for us not to” (Instructor 1).

Professional growth. Professional growth seemed to be important for all instructors, but especially so for the untenured professor. When asked why she was motivated to work with KPD, she stated, “[I]t seemed like it was going to be an important and prestigious thing for an untenured faculty member to be a co-PI [principal investigator] on a high dollar grant like this” (Instructor 1). Due to the university system of awarding tenure, working on grants that bring in money is highly valued and rewarded. The untenured faculty member explained what being involved in the grant meant for her professionally, “[I]t was a great opportunity. I was new to the faculty. I was untenured. It was a huge grant, so it looks good on my vita” (Instructor 1).

The category of professional growth included knowledge about and experience with distance learning and online courses. This area captured the attention of one professor who had some interest in “applying technology to learning” prior to the grant and previously studied the use technology use in the foreign language classroom (Instructor 3). The instructor came to KPD interested in the possibilities of using the “sophisticated” technology to cast a lecture, use Blackboard, and show a video to teachers on the other side of the state (Instructor 3). Near the end of the grant when the interview took place, the instructor stated that the distance learning aspect was “challenging” and a “learning experience.”

Professional growth was also mentioned in relation to the university expectation of research. Only the untenured professor mentioned that a motivation for being involved in KPD

was the expectation that it would yield research. At the beginning of the grant, she was hopeful that, together with other faculty and the evaluation team, she would be able to produce research about the KPD program and its effectiveness with in-service teachers (Instructor 1). While a tenured faculty member hoped that the KPD program would result in research and was disappointed that no publications came from it, he did not list research as an initial motivation for being involved with KPD (Instructor 2). The third faculty member was not interested in doing research related to KPD, because TESOL wasn't her area of expertise and wasn't what she was comfortable doing. She said "there were other people more interested in—in the research part" (Instructor 3).

Service. The third reason instructors gave for becoming involved in KPD was related to service. Instructors wanted to work with KPD because they were interested in the population in Southwest Kansas and wanted to help teachers navigate the changes in the classroom related to increasing EL populations in the rural settings. One instructor was interested in working with the teachers in Southwest Kansas because they were in an "extremely rural situation," with limited resources (Instructor 2). He explained:

You have all these immigrants, and people there don't know what to do with, don't—probably don't want to deal with it in some ways [Laughs]—but don't know what to do with it. (Instructor 2)

The instructor viewed his involvement with KPD as a way to help teachers understand how they could respond to the changing needs in the classroom. The instructor also framed KPD as an opportunity for stakeholders at the university to learn more about Southwest Kansas and extend programming to the area. The instructor noted that Wheat University typically had few

students from Southwest Kansas, and KPD was “building connections within the state with a population we didn’t know very well” (Instructor 1).

Another instructor, who spoke of having spent some time in that part of the state and having an “affinity to the place,” saw a need for the TESOL department to reach out to teachers. The instructor explained that her previous career as an ESOL teacher in a Kansas high school attuned her to the issues teachers and immigrants faced, and with no ESOL-specific training at that time, the instructor was just making it up as she went along. Now a faculty member and researcher, the KPD instructor stated:

I just really feel still a strong sense of duty as an educator and particularly in the position I am in now, to try to, you know, help those teachers and in particular those students and be an advocate for them. (Instructor 1)

Thus, the university instructors came to KPD with both a strong interest in the area and the expectation of helping teachers to adjust their instruction to meet the needs of ELs.

In sum, the university instructors mentioned several reasons they were motivated to work with KPD. All faculty members noted that KPD was a part of their responsibilities or a natural extension of their jobs. Instructors were interested in professional gains, learning experiences, and research, but they also had altruistic reasons for being involved as they wanted to help both teachers and ELs in Southwest Kansas.

Challenges

Although all three instructors said they wanted to be involved in the KPD grant and that they did it willingly, as they became involved in managing the grant and teaching the courses, they realized their expectations were not fulfilled, which led one instructor to resign, and the others to express disappointment or frustration with particular aspects of the grant. Instructors’

reported there were challenges related to their research goals and interests, the time needed for KPD, autonomy as instructors, and roles as university instructors.

Research. Two instructors, one tenured and the other not, anticipated their involvement with KPD would yield research and publications as part of their collaboration with the evaluation team, but both quickly learned that the research possibilities were limited (Instructor 1; Instructor 2). Both instructors mentioned they worked with the evaluation team on an article related to another project, but no research came from KPD. In the final year of the grant, one instructor was skeptical that the evaluation team would produce a final product and said he had seen “almost nothing useful from them yet.” He concluded that the evaluation component was “a huge waste of money” (Instructor 2), especially unfortunate because studies related to the effectiveness of the program would have been of interest to the field. The other instructor stated there wasn’t much interest on the part of the evaluation team to come up with a research design that would allow them to write and publish an article:

To date, as far as I know, not a single article has been written about, you know—or not a single study, apart from yours [the current study], has been done on this project, despite the numerous questions that we have empirical evidence to answer now (Instructor 1).

Even though both instructors pointed to the challenges of working with the evaluation team to carry out research, they noted they should have been more active in asking for data and making sure there was something there that could be turned into a publication. The untenured professor said that perhaps the blame falls on her as well, and she stated, “Research just doesn’t happen. Someone has to take the initiative and actually follow through” (Instructor 1). Thus, the instructors’ initial expectations of meaningful research and the possibilities of publications were not met through KPD, and this lack of research contributed to a gap between what instructors

anticipated from their involvement in KPD and what they were expected to do in their positions at a “publish or perish” research university.

Time. Instructors indicated that the amount of time needed for KPD was another challenge of KPD. The grant was written to have a director at the university who would oversee the grant and communicate with all the stakeholders, but during the course of the five-year grant and a no-cost extension year there were six people who acted in this role. The change in coordinators required instructors to spend more time coordinating the KPD program during the gaps and transitions in leadership. The untenured professor, for example, trained new coordinators and became the “go-to person for everything,” meaning that she would call the meetings and organize the schedules. She explained, “It was sucking up so much of my time, and it was distracting me from a lot of the other things that I needed to be doing” (Instructor 1). KPD quickly became “such a bureaucratic coordination time suck” that the instructor eventually ended up leaving the project. She commented, “I was already going through enough stress with tenure. I didn’t need then any more. So, I resigned” (Instructor 1). The other two professors did not describe the administration aspect of KPD as particularly time-consuming, possibly because they were not very involved in managing the grant or because they did not feel the pressure to publish quite as acutely as the untenured professor.

Autonomy. Instructors experienced a loss of autonomy when they were encouraged to change their courses to meet the demands of the teachers and the goals of the grant. All instructors, at one point or another, changed their course requirements to be more teacher-friendly; in other words, to better fit teachers’ schedules, match the teachers’ interests, accommodate the teachers’ abilities, make the course more student-centered, or match the teachers’ expectations of flexibility (Instructor 1; Instructor 2; Instructor 3). Notably, none of the

instructors presented the changes they made as decisions that were independent from feedback from the teachers, program directors, or other stakeholders.

Comments from two instructors highlight the loss of autonomy in the courses. One instructor, who described “a disconnect between the goals of the instructors and the goals of the—of the Institute,” recalled an incident when teachers complained about how much work they had to do in the course. The instructor was “basically forced to—to lower the expectations.” The instructor also agreed to eliminate final letter grades and instead use the Pass/No Pass option for one of her courses because of a program director’s insistence (Instructor 3). The instructor concluded, “Those kinds of things lower the quality of the, the education...So it’s like if we were,—we were tailoring our programs to their needs, and to their likes, or their preferences, rather than them adapting to, to the, the, the [Wheat University] standards” (Instructor 3). I attempted to clarify by stating, “It kind of seems like you are arguing that [Wheat University] instructors should have some degree of freedom to decide what to include in the courses and how to grade it?” The instructor responded, “That would be—, that’s basic” (Instructor 3). From these interview data, it becomes clear that the instructors’ “basic” autonomy to carry out the courses was superseded by the Institute’s goals to address the concerns of the KPD teachers and, in doing so, ensure teachers’ continued participation, a critical measure of success.

One instructor who made changes to the course expectations based on teachers’ feedback also brought into question the autonomy she had with the KPD courses. After discussing how she had “watered down the curriculum,” the instructor commented that she made the changes based on the “complaints” from teachers (Instructor 1). She quickly revised “complaints” to “threats,” and explained that a superintendent had threatened that his teachers would pull out of the program if the course requirements were not changed. She described her initial reaction, “Well,

at first I was really angry. I thought, you know, well, to hell with them. Bunch of babies. Whiney brats” (Instructor 1). She said she felt “ganged up on” and described a difference between the KPD teachers and other students attending Wheat University who came to the graduate program expecting to do a lot of work. For most courses, students could write “nasty things” in the course evaluations at the end of the semester, but it was up to the instructor’s discretion to make changes to the course (Instructor 1). In contrast, the KPD courses were shaped by the teachers’ “complaints,” the superintendent’s “threats,” the Institute’s suggestions, and the project coordinators’ feedback. The instructors’ autonomy with KPD was challenged in ways they were typically not accustomed to in other courses, and the interview data showed a mismatch between professors’ anticipated autonomy and what they experienced in the KPD program.

Roles as instructors. The issue of autonomy leads into another topic of concern for instructors; their roles as instructors in graduate level courses. One instructor, who described making several accommodations in the course, initially framed flexibility as a strength of KPD; instructors were responsive to teachers’ needs. He criticized faculty members at the university who were “not flexible enough,” “not sensitive enough to the audience,” or would not make any accommodations at all in their courses. Even though the instructor valued responsiveness to teachers, he also described the need to provide a rigorous and quality education. Even small accommodations like decreasing the length of class meeting times were “basically changing the quality and quantity of what you do” (Instructor 2). The professor explained:

To what extent as a professional, do you have the responsibility to actually meet the needs of the students and be student-centered and not just play lip-service to that philosophy but actually carry it out in reality? What extent do you do that while at the

same time [say], ‘This is a graduate class and you are getting three credit hours and you are supposed to learn something and do something’? (Instructor 2).

With these remarks, the instructor illustrated a tension in his two roles; he was a KPD instructor who wanted to be responsive to teachers’ needs, but he was also a university professor who wanted to provide a quality graduate-level course, and not just an in-service or workshop.

In sum, although instructors were willing to teach the KPD courses, and even provided many reasons for doing so, they faced challenges with how KPD was operationalized, including the lack of research produced, time needed for the program, the lack of autonomy, and contradictions within their roles as teachers of graduate students. These challenges are just those that relate to the instructors’ professional positions; instructors experienced other challenges as they interacted with other KPD stakeholders and teachers.

Knowledge of Southwest Kansas and Teachers

According to their own accounts, instructors had little experience with or knowledge regarding ESOL programs and challenges that were specific to Southwest Kansas. One instructor stated that he was really not familiar with Southwest Kansas and had only been there once as he was driving through the area. He admitted that maybe he did not understand the teachers’ situations and schools in Southwest Kansas, and reasoned that teachers would probably have responsibilities and roles within the schools that were different from those of teachers in suburban areas (Fieldnotes, March 26, 2012, Instructor 4). This instructor also suggested the EL population in Southwest Kansas was mainly Spanish-speaking while there would be more diversity in suburban areas. This instructor’s comments demonstrate the lack of understanding of Southwest Kansas, where several districts served a diverse EL population with more than 20 languages represented.

In spite of their limited knowledge, the instructors claimed that they had a growing understanding of Southwest Kansas through their experience with KPD. For example, one instructor who had spent some time in Southwest Kansas before KPD and described it as an “exotic” but “oft-forgotten” part of Kansas learned more about its “remoteness” and the unique demographics of the area (Instructor 1). Through KPD, another instructor began to realize “how rural they were and how small their schools were and how few students they had” (Instructor 2); the instructor noted that some of the teachers didn’t have any ELs in the building while others had a “ton of ELL students.” The instructor also noted that maybe he should have solicited more input about their school settings. His comments reveal that not only was he learning about Southwest Kansas and the teachers, but also that he recognized this understanding was critical to providing effective PD.

Various stakeholders, including directors, coordinators, teachers, and even university instructors themselves reported that instructors did not have a good understanding of the roles and responsibilities of teachers in Southwest Kansas when the KPD program began. For example, one instructor admitted that his understanding of the teachers and their schools was initially very limited and that he didn’t understand the differences in the responsibilities of teachers in rural schools and those of the suburban-area teachers who are typically his students on campus (Instructor 2). As a result, he didn’t think his “vision of who they were and what they needed probably matched reality exactly until [he] had more interaction with them” (Instructor 2). When I asked another instructor, who had very little experience with Southwest Kansas, if she had a chance to visit the teachers’ classrooms, she replied, “Well, I might have had a chance, but I didn’t take it” (Instructor 3). The instructor flew to Southwest Kansas with a program director at the beginning of the grant to visit the educational center and see the

videoconferencing facilities. However, she did not visit any of the KPD schools or teachers. In my interview with her, which occurred during the final year of the grant, the instructor was unsure about the location of the educational center and did not know its name. Though the instructor celebrated being able to travel there and back in one day, the limited time likely hindered a better understanding of the area, the schools, and the teachers.

Instructors' knowledge of KPD teachers and their roles in Southwest Kansas grew during KPD. One instructor discussed how the frequent technical glitches in the videoconferencing course combined with teachers' busy schedules left them little time during the class sessions (Instructor 1). She expressed frustration that the technology challenges took time away from the course, time that was already so limited because of the teachers' school responsibilities and coaching duties. A second noted that many final grades of "Incomplete" were assigned to her KPD students, but she claimed it was understandable given they were "so much involved with other things" (Instructor 3). The instructor reasoned that teachers had busy schedules that may have made getting through the coursework difficult, so she allowed them to take an "Incomplete" and finish the required assignments at a later time. She also made some modifications to the assignment deadlines to accommodate teachers' schedules. The comments from both instructors demonstrate they began to understand teachers' many roles and busy schedules and even made changes to their courses based on their new understanding.

Project coordinators in Southwest Kansas helped teachers deliver the message about their busy schedules. The coordinator explained that she just tried to "enhance the communication" between teachers and instructors (Coordinator 1). After discovering the KPD course load was "a shock" for teachers, project coordinators arranged a meeting with the instructors and directors to talk about the courses. The project coordinator said she told instructors, "You know, these are

full-time teachers; these are not graduate students on your campus. They're full-time teachers in small schools and so, when they get done with classes, they go and coach and sponsor"

(Coordinator 1). The project coordinator said that as a result of the conversation, instructors became much more understanding and modified their courses (Coordinator 1).

Even though instructors became increasingly aware of how busy teachers were, they also struggled to reconcile their perceptions of the teachers and whether, or how, to modify their courses. If instructors were reluctant to modify the courses considerably, it was partly because they questioned the seriousness and commitment of the in-service teachers involved. For example, while one instructor acknowledged the range in the teachers' abilities to grasp the concepts and apply the information to their assignments, she also noted that many teachers got incompletes or didn't turn in their assignments (Instructor 1). The instructor described two teachers enrolled in a course:

[They] attended every session, and they participated, and they were really great, but then they never completed any of the final assignments and just accepted incompletes. And not only did they accept incompletes, but then they never finished it. So their incompletes turned into Fs and then they didn't even care. (Instructor 1)

This instructor also oversaw the practicum, and so near the end of the course, she travelled to Southwest Kansas to observe four teachers in their classrooms. The visit was "so disappointing," because two of the four teachers "just blew the whole thing off" (Instructor 1). She elaborated:

I mean, I don't think they had any intention of doing any kind of teaching to a model that we had provided for them to do. They didn't make any effort. I mean, one of them made virtually no effort, didn't even give me a lesson plan. And the other, you know, whatever

lesson plan I got was such a joke. And there weren't even English language learners in the classes we observed. (Instructor 1)

Given the instructor's impressions of the teachers' commitment to the course, she was conflicted about changing the course requirements. She reasoned that when in-service teachers take courses with their colleagues they act differently than other TESOL students:

They're much more likely to play the dummies. They're more likely to get into this group mentality that says, 'Oh, we don't want to do all that work. Come on. We're different!' You know? 'We've got lives.' And then you're the outsider and then suddenly they're ganging up on you, and it's sort of a weird position to be in. (Instructor 1)

Although the instructor recognized that teachers were busy, she found teachers' commitment to the program to be lacking. To illustrate, she relayed to me that even though she eliminated some of the readings that were normally included in the SLA course curriculum and found a text that was more "user-friendly" toward a teacher audience, "it still wasn't enough" for the teachers (Instructor 1). They wanted even fewer readings and assignments. So, even though instructors were willing to lessen the course load to some extent, they resisted making significant changes as they felt many teachers weren't fully committed to the KPD program.

What Teachers Need to Know

Participants in this study were asked to share their perspectives on the knowledge, skills, or dispositions K-12 teachers need to know when working with ELs. To tease out the importance that participants from all stakeholder groups placed on various aspects of ESOL education, I asked them, first, what teachers working with ELs should know, and second, what ESOL-endorsed teachers should know. Originally, I asked these questions to understand the stakeholders' perspectives of the differences between teachers who are endorsed and those who

are not. However, responses to the questions were mostly redundant, which may indicate that participants conceptualized these classroom roles in much the same way and saw no meaningful distinction between them. As such, participants' responses to both questions are considered together and clearly indicate differences in the skills, dispositions, and knowledge that various stakeholders believed to be important. For the university instructors' part, they mentioned that teachers need to know about language and language learning theories, pedagogical practice, and students' background or culture, in addition to having certain dispositions when working with ELs.

Language. Instructors reported that language as a subject was important for teachers to know when working with ELs. Instructors' responses ranged from knowing how to select the vocabulary that would be challenging in a lesson and building the students' vocabulary through scaffolding (Instructor 4) to understanding how difficult reading a text would be without complete grasp of the language and thus the need to deconstruct the text for ELs (Instructor 3). Teachers needed to know "a lot about language" to write clear language objectives and support students' language development, but according to one instructor, it was often difficult to get teachers to think beyond identifying just the simple language domains ELs would use in a lesson (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) (Instructor 1). She explained:

When you want your students to participate in some activity in class and your language objective is that they will speak to one another, it's clear that you don't know what's involved in speaking. Um, what? Are they just going to open their mouths and utter a few words? Do you care how those words are put together? You know? So, some knowledge of the structure of language [is needed]. (Instructor 1)

The instructor also noted that teachers often “resisted” learning about language; “They don’t want linguistics. They don’t want to learn grammar. They don’t think it’s their responsibility frankly.” (Instructor 1). Even though the instructor named language structure as something teachers needed to know, she reported that teachers found it irrelevant to their classrooms.

Besides knowing about language and language structure, instructors reported that teachers needed knowledge of a second language to best serve ELs. In the process of learning a second language, teachers would learn more about grammar and language structures (Instructor 1), but also understand what it was like to be immersed in a situation in which they didn’t understand the language (Instructor 1; Instructor 3). Teachers should learn a second language so they could experience “what it means to have to learn in a language that is not yours” (Instructor 3), and thus be a little bit more empathic about what it means to be a language learner (Instructor 1). Knowing or taking a course in another language was not a requirement of the TESOL program; yet, instructors reported that to be prepared to work with ELs, teachers should have some exposure to another language.

In addition, instructors noted that it was also important for classroom teachers to know theories related to SLA and language development. According to instructors, the theory should inform and shape teachers’ practice (Instructor 1), and teachers should know “background knowledge about the field” (Instructor 2). One instructor said knowledge about SLA would be particularly important for teachers who had no experience learning a second language so they could better understand the challenges of ELs (Instructor 3).

Although all four instructors mentioned that topics related to language theory were important, a couple noted that the amount of information teachers needed could be largely

dependent on the teachers' grade level and subject area. For example, one instructor claimed a math teacher may only need a little bit of instruction in theory (Instructor 4); however, a language arts teacher would probably need to know more. This instructor explained, "They [language arts teachers] have sometimes the vocabulary base to deal with um, the—the language issues, the language issues, so they need a theory. The theory goes to the support of how a student actually acquires a second language" (Instructor 4). Another instructor recognized the same challenge and wished the TESOL department at the university had two endorsement plans, one for classroom teachers who were pursuing an ESOL endorsement and another one for ESOL specialists; classroom teachers would take courses in content-based instruction, learn how to differentiate instruction at the elementary and secondary levels, and have "sort of hands-on, practical kinds of tools that are theory-based" (Instructor 1). Classroom teachers would still need a little bit of the theory to carry out the practical side "purposefully" (Instructor 1). In contrast, specialists would learn a lot more about the background of second language acquisition and the different approaches to language teaching (Instructor 1).

Practice. Instructors reported that teachers also needed to know particular techniques to be able to implement specific practices when working with ELs. All instructors mentioned some aspect of methods, such as differentiation, adapting the instruction, or scaffolding and helping the students build on their prior knowledge. Teachers working with ELs should recognize that there needed to be a 'background lesson' that taught what ELs would need to know before they got to the main lesson (Instructor 4). Another instructor, who considered the methods course the most important of all the TESOL courses, said knowing methods and incorporating language exercises and activities was a "basic thing" that teachers of any content area could do (Instructor 3). She explained:

Even if you don't exactly know the theory behind those techniques or—or even if you don't know the linguistics, but you know, at least you are a native speaker and you—you can modify or adapt your—your classroom um activities in order to address, to help those ELLs in your classroom. (Instructor 3)

Another instructor added that teachers should also know about assessment, what constitutes valid information, and how to increase their ability to assess ELs in a “more sensitive and accurate manner” (Instructor 2). Instructors reported that methods and practice were important, especially when included within a larger discussion of theory, background and culture, and teacher dispositions.

Background or culture. Two of the four instructors mentioned that teachers needed to understand some aspect of the students' background or culture. Teachers needed to know how it felt to be immersed in a different culture (Instructor 3) or to be in situations where they were ones who were different (Instructor 4). Another instructor went beyond just exposure to cultures; she said teachers need to know the background of the students in the context of their home countries and the United States. Teachers needed to know why their ELs were in the classrooms and gain an understanding of the “institutional factors, societal factors, economic factors” that influence what ELs and their parents face (Instructor 1). The instructor added that societal attitudes are reflected in the way teachers interact with students in schools, and until teachers understood the context of immigration, they wouldn't “be able to offer these kids a level playing field in the school” and they would “always privilege the white native-born kids” (Instructor 1). When instructors talked about the need for teachers to understand students' background and culture, they talked about the interplay of factors that shaped students' experiences in U.S. schools.

Dispositions. Two of the four instructors mentioned teachers need a certain attitude or disposition to work with ELs successfully. According to one instructor, the category of dispositions, described as the affect, attitudes, and a “sort of sensitivity toward that audience,” used to be included in the requirements for teachers, but these characteristics were “too fuzzy to pin down” (Instructor 2). An instructor who taught the intercultural awareness course reported that teachers needed empathy, developed when teachers began to know about the students’ backgrounds and situations (Fieldnotes, March 26, 2012, Instructor 4). The intercultural awareness course was “an attitude-changing class” in which the teachers examined “the problems that these kids have to go through every day” and took a critical look at school systems to understand how schools fail immigrant children (Instructor 4). This instructor shared that the course addressed teachers’ attitudes toward ELs and encouraged them to reflect on their attitudes toward ELs.

In short, what instructors said was important for teachers to know aligned with the KPD courses. The information provided in the courses was representative of what instructors believed to be important. As we will see later, teachers’ reports of what teachers need to know varied greatly; they emphasized practice and methods while overlooking language and theory.

Summary of University Context

To conclude, Wheat University’s history of providing grant-funded PD programs to groups of in-service teachers situated KPD between two grants and shaped how both instructors and directors understood their experiences with KPD. Instructors were willing to be involved in KPD because they saw it as part of their responsibilities, they anticipated professional growth, and they wanted to give back to teachers and schools. However, they faced several challenges; they weren’t able to produce meaningful research, they didn’t have the time to manage the

program, they experienced a loss of autonomy, and they had conflicted roles as instructors in graduate-level courses. Furthermore, even though instructors reported teachers needed to know about their students' backgrounds, they initially knew little about the teachers' situations in Southwest Kansas. Instructors' preconceptions of what teachers needed to know emphasized language and theory that could inform practice. With that summary of university instructor's perspectives, I now turn to the context of Southwest Kansas, where in-service teachers' experiences with KPD were shaped by a very different context.

The Southwest Kansas Context

The Southwest Kansas area studied for this research covered nine districts in both urban clusters and rural areas stretching across a space of 125 miles. As described earlier, many of the KPD communities in Southwest Kansas have had continuous population changes, and a few sites are even majority-minority communities. Jobs in meatpacking, dairies, and feedlots have attracted a diverse work force mainly from Latin America, but also from Southeast Asia, Somalia, and Ethiopia. The population shifts are noticeable in schools as well, and, overall, ELs make up a larger percentage of the student population than in years past.

EL Student Population in Southwest Kansas

Some of the districts involved in this study have a large number of ELs with well-established ESOL programs while other schools have only a few students with little or no ESOL support. For the purposes of this study, the nine districts have been categorized into three groups based on their EL population. A description of the number of ELs, the diversity, and language proficiency of the students illustrate how varied the districts are and provide context for examining KPD and the program's response to these differences.

High number of EL student population. Three of the nine districts involved in KPD were considered to be districts with a high percentage of ELs, defined as having 35% or more ELs in the student population. Two of the districts were located in urban clusters and the third was a rural school district. Even though the three districts all had a high percentage of ELs, they varied in terms of the diversity and language proficiency of the students and the district support. As such, the rural district will be considered separately from the two districts located in urban clusters.

Districts in urban clusters. In the two districts located in urban clusters, ELs made up roughly half of the student population at 44.5 and 55.6 percent of the student body in 2010 to 2011 (KSDE Building Report Card). In one district the number of ELs at the high school was almost one third of the student population; there were 368 ELs of a total of 1180 students (ESOL D). The other district had over 3,200 ELs with over 20 different languages spoken (ESOL F). An elementary school teacher put these numbers in perspective when she described the students in her classroom; half of her students were ELs, with a student from Burma, a student from India, “14 that [were] Hispanic, and two or three White” (Teacher F4). The high EL population in these districts meant that teachers involved in KPD generally had frequent contact with ELs.

Participants from these two districts described great diversity in their EL population in terms of their backgrounds and experiences in the U.S. While Spanish-speakers have been and continue to be the largest segment of the EL population, districts had ELs from a variety of countries and enrolled refugee children from Burma and Somalia (ESOL F). The EL population at both districts included those who had been in the U.S. for a while and transient ELs whose families followed agricultural work, went back and forth between two meatpacking plants in nearby towns, or returned to Mexico for part of the year (ESOL D; ESOL F). A majority of the

ELs in District D were Spanish-speakers from Mexico, a few were from Guatemala, but most had been in the U.S. for a long time (ESOL D).

KPD participants in these two districts described a range of English language proficiency among the students, with some struggling to understand and speak conversational English, while others were proficient with just a few gaps in academic language. Teachers said they had students who were “straight from Mexico” who “very much did not speak much English at all” and other students who were completely bilingual (Teacher D1). Participants in Southwest Kansas described “perpetual ELL kids” who, had been in ESOL a long time but couldn’t score enough on the Kansas English Language Proficiency Assessment (KELPA) to exit the program (ESOL D), and immigrant students identified as EL even though they spoke English fluently (Teacher F4). Teachers in these two districts worked with ELs of all proficiency levels and for the most part, recognized that even students who seemingly spoke English quite well could be identified as EL.

Participants in these districts described many types of support offered to both teachers and ELs. Well-established ESOL programs and systems were in place with newcomer sites for recent arrivals, ESOL assistance in classrooms, and “pull-out” instruction (ESOL F). In addition to the mainstream classroom teachers who were ESOL certified, ESOL specialists, a migrant student liaison, and a Spanish-speaking nurse were part of the network of support. Districts also provided PD workshops and resources for teachers, materials in students’ native languages, bilingual staff, bilingual paraeducators, and interpreters for students and families. Further, when one district saw an increase in the number of refugee students from Burma and Somalia, they brought in a speaker to provide background information about the countries and cultures, explain why the refugee families were coming, and give an overview of their immigration status as

refugees (ESOL F). Although the district did not have all the support it wanted in place, ESOL coordinators recognized the gaps and had plans to increase the number of bilingual paraeducators for less common languages and find materials in the students' home languages (ESOL F).

With so many ELs in the districts, teachers reported they made adjustments to meet the needs of students in their classrooms and also noted that the school overall made a concerted effort to address the needs of a majority of their students. For example, one teacher commented that to reach the needs of the many ELs in her classes, she constantly made adjustments to her lesson to make it more comprehensible, and she explained that with their population “just the culture of the school is going to be very geared towards ESL, ELL, and Hispanic students” (Teacher D2). Also, in the previous year, teachers and administrators noticed a wide divide between the achievement of White and Hispanic students, and they began to focus on their ESOL instruction and the students' culture as a way to address the gap (Teacher D2). Comments from study participants from large districts with high ESOL populations indicated there were many resources available at the district level, which suggests worked in school cultures that valued ESOL education and where information from the KPD courses could build on teachers' prior experience and knowledge. KPD teachers from these districts were in school environments where school staff put in practice many of suggestions of the TESOL profession. As reported by these teachers, the KPD coursework aligned with many of their districts' initiatives, which may have contributed to teachers feeling the KPD program was relevant to their teaching situations.

Rural district. The third district, District B, had the highest percentage of ELs among all of the KPD districts at 68.2 percent in 2010-2011 (KSDE Building Report Card). Unlike its more urban counterparts, however, this rural district did not have as much diversity in the EL population. For example, at the middle school 55 of 67 EL students were Low German speakers

and they had “very few Hispanic,” a situation that was “unique” in Southwest Kansas as the EL population in other schools in the area was mainly Spanish-speaking (Administrator B). The lack of diversity also appeared in the ELs’ levels of English proficiency. Because families of ELs had been a part of this community for years, by the time students entered middle school where the KPD teachers taught, they had already had “six, seven, eight years of language learning” and thus came with a high level of English (Teacher B1). In fact, the teachers reported, ELs spoke English better than the native English speakers, had been the spelling bee champions, and were the really good writers in the school (Teacher B1). One KPD teacher noted it was difficult to know which students were ELs because their English proficiency levels were so high, and so, she identified the students by their appearance, dress, and “odor” (Teacher B2). In discussing the EL population, neither teacher mentioned the students’ scores on the KELPA; one recalled that the students were tested but she never saw the results.

Both KPD teachers who taught in the rural district with a high percentage of teachers believed the ELs at their school were at such high levels of English proficiency there was not a “language barrier,” and so, they did not need help in the classroom. In other words, although these students could speak another language, according to one teacher, “they are normal” (Teacher B2). In the 53-minute interview with the teacher, she mentioned eight times that the school did not have ELs in the school to make ESOL PD worthwhile, and she found the concepts of the KPD courses difficult to apply in her situation because they “just don’t have ESL kids to learn from” (Teacher B2). The other teacher agreed; the ELs did not need any language support because the gaps in their knowledge were not “incredibly significant” (Teacher B1). Evidently, the teachers from this district defined an EL narrowly as one who speaks very little or no English. They did not consider students who speak conversational English but struggle to read

academic texts in the classroom or who might have continuing challenges adapting to the mainstream classroom as ELs.

The small rural district tried to address the needs of the ELs by providing some services to the students and their families, but participants reported few supports in place. As the district required teachers to become endorsed within three years of being hired, classroom teachers were largely responsible for helping ELs in the classroom. They did not have ESOL paraeducators, but the paraeducators intended for special education students sometimes lent a hand to students. The district provided some translation and interpreting services, but they couldn't provide adequate written communication to most of their families because Low German is not a written language (Administrator B). The district didn't have a full-time interpreter but offered services on an "as needed" basis during parent-teacher conferences and other events. An administrator explained, "A lot of times we use the older sibling in the family because they can speak English and interpret for us" (Administrator B). Clearly there was a need for interpreting services in the district; however, the district did not see it as critical enough to hire an interpreter on a more permanent basis. In contrast to the large districts, teachers in this high-EL rural district reported students didn't need support in the classroom, a notion obviously shared by the district given the few ESOL services provided.

Moderate number of EL student population. Four of the districts whose teachers were involved in the KPD program had a moderately-sized EL population, defined as between 20 and 34 percent of the district student population. In 2010 – 2011, the percentage of the student body identified as EL was 23.3 for District H, 24.2 for District C, 32.3 for District I, and 33.8 for District G (KSDE Building Report Card), and teachers and administrators reported that the EL population was growing. Data from the Kansas State Department of Education (KSDE) show

that the EL population in three of the districts grew, while in District H the population decreased slightly. District I serves as example of the growth in these districts; from 2007-2008 to 2010-2011, it experienced a jump in the EL population from 20.9 to 32.3 percent of the total the student population (KSDE Building Report Card). Furthermore, participants expected the EL population to continue to grow as families of ELs arrived to these small, rural school districts because of nearby jobs in agriculture, feedyards, farming, dairies, and meat-processing (Administrator H).

The 14 teachers and three administrators interviewed from these districts reported most of the ELs in the districts were from Mexico, and included some German Mennonite students as well (Teacher C1; Teacher G3; Administrator G; Administrator H). And, even though the district EL population was growing, most of the ELs in these districts were fairly proficient in English. According to participants, there were few ELs who “just really, really struggled speaking the English language” (Administrator H) and students seemed like they were “high functioning in the classroom” (Teacher H3). In addition to being “good speakers,” they were also “pretty good students,” and teachers reported they didn’t need modify their courses much as a result (Teacher G3; Teacher H3). In fact, participants could recall the very few students in their teaching careers who did not speak “a lick of English” (Teacher H3; Administrator G). Rarely in these districts did teachers have ELs who were beginners, and when they did, they didn’t know where to begin with the student (Teacher H3) or how to “handle it” (Teacher G3). Teachers provided three general reasons they had few ELs with limited English proficiency: 1) ELs came from families that have been well-established in the communities and have grown up speaking English; 2) ELs arrived when they were young and learned English in elementary school; 3) ELs generally did not enroll in the advanced courses the teachers taught. Thus, in these districts most of the

participants' experience working with ELs came from interacting with those who were able to understand and speak quite a bit of English. In general, teachers in these districts recognized that, although most of the ELs had high levels of English proficiency, they might need additional support in the classroom.

One teacher who described the diversity in her students' language proficiency was an exception. This teacher, who worked mainly with ELs in a struggling readers' group at the high school, reported the students' scores on the KELPA ranged from the lowest level (level one) to fluent (level four). Although most of her students were "probably between a two and three," she did have some ELs who were on a "consult basis" and "two kids who are fairly new to the country that are level one" (Teacher I1). The teacher's use of the KELPA scores to describe her students not only illustrates the range in the students' proficiency levels, but also demonstrates that this particular district had a system in place where teachers were made aware of the ELs in the classroom and their scores.

The support for ELs and PD opportunities for teachers was limited in these four districts. Only three of the 14 teachers mentioned any ESOL PD opportunities provided by the district; the education center presented information about an instructional model to teachers at one district (Teacher G1; Teacher G3; Administrator G), and another district brought in a speaker to talk about the culture and background of German Mennonites (Teacher C1). The support offered in these districts mostly came from the ESOL staff person, and when asked to describe the ESOL program, both teachers and administrators usually mentioned the ESOL coordinator and described that person's role. For example, a high school administrator stated the ESOL coordinator was the one who tested and identified ELs, and for the few that struggle with English, the coordinator did "a really good job of recognizing that and then using what resources

we have available to help that student” (Administrator C). As evidenced in the participants’ comments, the district services revolved around the support the ESOL staff person provided.

To highlight the support offered in districts with a moderate number of ELs, I will describe the plan in place at District G; their system of support mirrors that of the other districts with a moderate number of ELs. The district ESOL coordinator assessed ELs with the KELPA, and then informed the teachers about the ELs in their classes. At the elementary level, teachers received notebooks with a list of their students, their KELPA scores, and their individual learning plans; teachers at the high school were emailed a spreadsheet with students’ KELPA scores in the four language domains (ESOL G; Teacher G3; Teacher G5; Teacher G7). One teacher noted the list of ELs came out very late in the year, which meant he did not know which students might need additional help (Teacher G3). Once the ELs were identified, teachers and ESOL staff sometimes communicated about the modifications possible and what could be done to help students (Teacher G3). Although ESOL staff in District G provided minimal “pull-out” and “push-in” support to the ELs who had little English proficiency, teachers were largely responsible for making appropriate modifications within the classroom. The ESOL coordinator explained that because most of the teachers were ESOL endorsed, “a lot of accommodations are made within the classroom” (ESOL coordinator G).

Low numbers of EL student population. There were two districts in the KPD study that had low percentages of EL populations, with just 8.2 and 15.3 percent of the total district population (KSDE Building Report Card, 2010-2011). Districts with few ELs saw little diversity in their populations with “the Spanish” and “the German Mennonite-Spanish mix” (Teacher A4). One teacher pointed out that even though Southwest Kansas had migrant workers and Spanish-speakers, while she was taking the KPD courses, she had no ELs in her classroom (Teacher A1).

With surrounding areas having more and more ELs, teachers and administrators predicted their EL population would soon increase as well.

Many teachers in these two districts reported that they did not have much contact with ELs. The teachers explained that students had already learned English in their previous school years or they enrolled in other classes. For example, a high math teacher said, “Here I teach the upper level so, to be honest, I don’t have very many or if I do they are—they’ve been here for, since they were born” (Teacher E7). The teachers also explained that many of their ELs were born in the United States and their English levels were high enough that they did not need language support (Teacher E7).

While few teachers reported the English language proficiencies of the students to be varied, ranging from “the very lowest of the low because they speak very little English to ‘A’ students” (Teacher E8), most said their ELs were advanced. Many teacher participants narrowly defined ELs as ones who struggle to understand even conversational English or ones who used Spanish extensively; students who could and did function in English were not included in their estimates of the EL population (Teacher E2; Teacher E3; Teacher E6). To illustrate, one teacher defined ELs, “They’re not very proficient in the language. I mean, where it’s obvious that they struggle speaking it, understanding it, writing it, um. They’ll spend more time speaking Spanish than they will English” (Teacher E6). Part of the teacher’s definition of an EL is that it’s “obvious” that the student is struggling; however, only careful consideration of a student’s performance in class or from language assessments may reveal gaps in academic language.

Teachers’ narrow conceptualization of ELs was particularly apparent at a high school where five of six KPD teachers reported there to be only four ELs in the building. The four ELs mentioned were easy to identify, because they had very low English levels, worked with the

ESOL support person during one class period, and received support from a bilingual paraeducator during several content classes. However, the percentage of ELs in their building at the time of the interviews was 15.3 (KSDE Building Report Card, 2010-2011), meaning they would have had approximately 44 identified ELs. Teachers did not consider students who were at higher English proficiency levels to be ELs, which meant they missed out on opportunities to support their academic language development.

Besides greatly underestimating the number of ELs in the schools, teachers demonstrated a lack of knowledge of the few students they could identify. For example, in describing the EL population, one high school teacher said:

Um, this year I have...let's see...like three, I think. And they're all from Mexico. Um, two of them—one of them doesn't really speak English at all. One of them does pretty good but doesn't like to talk. And then the other one speaks pretty good English, and she'll talk to me more than the second one. (Teacher E4)

I asked the teacher to describe how long the students had been in U.S. schools and she responded:

I think the one that doesn't speak very good [*sic*] at all, I'm not sure on him. The second one—he came like two years ago, I think. And then the other one, I think she's been here.

She was in middle school and stuff, so I think she's been here for a while. (Teacher E4)

Throughout her comments, the teacher revealed limited knowledge of her ELs with regard to their backgrounds and language. Although other teachers in the district were able to provide a bit more information about the students, they still did not know much about their language proficiency, educational background, or how long they had been in the United States.

Teachers from these two districts described few PD opportunities for teachers and little support for ELs. Teachers attended a few workshops and the districts received some translation services from the educational center (Administrator A); only a few participants mentioned this support. A school administrator commented, “We don’t have a per se ESL program” and explained a program wasn’t needed because the numbers of ELs had been so low (Administrator A). At another district the support offered to students included an ESOL coordinator who made some modifications, an interpreter for non-English-speaking students, and students who acted as interpreters (Administrator E2). Most often the ESOL support system in these districts was often described as the ESOL resource person who worked with some students, identified ELs, and provided a list of ELs to teachers in the late fall or even during the spring semester. Teachers in these districts seldom collaborated with ESOL support staff because the ESOL supports were “victims of budget cuts” (Teacher E6). As ESOL those positions were cut, the responsibility of addressing the needs of ELs shifted to classroom teachers.

Participants confirmed that most of the support for ELs happened within the mainstream classroom. A district administrator who recognized the ESOL program as “not nearly enough” said that they have one ESOL paraeducator at the high school and a “helps type of class,” but other than that, ELs are in the mainstream classroom the rest of the day (Administrator E1). At the middle school, some modifications for ELs went through their ESOL coordinator, but the “majority of the instruction [took] place in the actual classroom” (Administrator E2). Participants’ descriptions of ESOL services that centers primarily on the support offered by teachers in mainstream classrooms demonstrates the need for classroom teachers to be prepared and trained to address the needs of ELs.

Administrators in these two districts also used strategic support of ELs, meaning the district supported ELs in a way that would primarily benefit the district and might benefit ELs, as well. For example, a high school administrator wanted to make a “concerted effort” to arrange ELs’ class schedules to be with ESOL-endorsed teachers to “maximize their opportunities,” which he defined as taking advantage of the “funding opportunities and contact time” (Administrator E1). The administrator wanted to place ELs in classrooms based on whether the teacher was ESOL endorsed, not necessarily based on the ELs’ proficiency levels or what classes or support the ELs needed. The placement allowed the district to capitalize on the additional funding received when ELs had contact time with ESOL-endorsed teachers. A middle school administrator in the same district said they identified high-achieving students as EL for as long as possible so that their performances on state assessments made it appear that the ESOL subgroup performed well. The strategic support was to benefit the district rather than to meet the needs of ELs.

As demonstrated, there was variety in the teachers’ districts, their EL populations, and their interactions with ELs. However, participants from all district types responded in similar ways to whose responsibility it was to teach ELs. Participants’ responses to the question, “Who is responsible for teaching ELs at your school?” fell into a three-response pattern: participants named the ESOL support person in the district, described it as “a combined effort,” or said the responsibility fell mainly on classroom teachers. One teacher’s response exemplified the first category. A middle school teacher described educating ELs as a “joint effort all the way around,” but then named the ESOL teacher, the high school Spanish language teacher who helped with the ELs, and the ESOL paraeducator as those who were responsible; however, she did not see how she, as a classroom teacher, could also support the students (Teacher E8). The significance of

having the responsibility placed on the ESOL staff was problematized by an administrator who noted that “it’s too easy to sort of shove everything to that [ELL class] period” and a particular ESOL support person (Administrator E1). Participants who noted the “combined effort” in teaching ELs acknowledged all those who helped ELs. One teacher exemplified this stance in listing the people who help with ELs at her school, including the ESOL interventionists who worked directly with the students, the principal who completed the paperwork and turned it in, a migrant worker who kept records of the service provided, a nurse who spoke Spanish, and the teachers who were ESOL endorsed (Teacher F2). Many participants’ responses fell into the third category, where classroom teachers shouldered the bulk of the responsibility for educating ELs in the district. A teacher in small district with many ELs explained that the school didn’t have any ESOL support, and he reported that “all the burden is on the teacher” (Teacher B1). Participants explained that because most teachers were ESOL endorsed, they were responsible for teaching ELs (Teacher G5; Teacher G7; Administrator E2).

Responses to the question of who is responsible for the education of ELs, in sum, cast light on how the participants perceived the education of ELs and their own role in it. But whether teachers’ viewed it as somebody else’s responsibility or recognized their own role, their responses overwhelmingly underscore the importance of PD related to TESOL. Teachers who named ESOL support staff may not understand how they could have a role in supporting ELs in the mainstream classroom. Those who indicated that the responsibility falls to the classroom teachers often did so with a sense of frustration, indicating their need for skills and knowledge—as well as a stronger network of support—to meet students’ needs. In other words, when the responsibility is placed on classroom teachers who do not have a good understanding of their

students' backgrounds, language proficiency, or academic needs, ELs may not get adequate support.

In summary, the nine school districts from which the KPD teachers came vary quite a bit in terms of the EL population. For this study, the districts were categorized based on the percentage of ELs in the student population, a division that was useful for illustrating the diversity of the ELs, the services provided by the districts, and the teachers' understandings and perceptions of their ELs and ESOL services. As my analysis of these data will demonstrate, KPD courses needed to address a variety of school contexts to make the material relevant to teachers who came from disparate school contexts. These insights also build a sociocultural context for understanding teachers' experiences with KPD. For example, teachers who saw the KPD program fitting in with their district's larger effort to meet the needs of ELs were generally more open to the KPD experience and found it to be relevant to their teaching. In contrast, teachers at districts with moderate and low populations of ELs often reported that the KPD program was not applicable to them, because they didn't have ELs in the classroom and those they did have would not have benefitted from the approaches presented. What's more, the presentation of the context of the districts is important to this study because it illustrates the origin of some of the tensions in the KPD program. Some teachers didn't find KPD relevant or helpful, because its purpose was to address a need the teachers did not believe they had.

Teacher Characteristics

With the sociocultural context of Southwest Kansas educational services regarding the EL population in mind, I turn now to a consideration of the teachers' cultural backgrounds, experiences with diversity, and knowledge of languages other than English. With few

exceptions, teachers mentioned limited experiences with diversity or multiculturalism and little exposure or knowledge of a second language.

All but three of the 36 teachers interviewed identified themselves as White, and 34 of the teacher participants were native speakers of English. Four teachers reported significant experiences with diversity; one was a member of the military and had traveled and lived in several countries (Teacher A2), two were foreign born and continued to travel to their home countries (Teacher E; Teacher G2), and another told stories of growing up in a diverse community (Teacher F4). Other than these four teachers, KPD teachers had minimal experience with cultural and linguistic diversity. Most of the teachers were born and raised in Kansas, several in the communities where they taught, and about half reported they grew up in small towns with little diversity. One teacher admitted he was “pretty sheltered” growing up and had just “one minority student” in his class (Teacher B1). Another commented, “I grew up in a small town. There was no other cultures. There was no other experience” (Teacher A3). Several teachers mentioned that their first exposure to different cultures happened when they arrived to Southwest Kansas to teach. For example, one elementary school teacher described the diversity in the school as “quite an eye-opener” (Teacher G7), a high school teacher found it to be “overwhelming” when she moved to an area with many Hispanics (Teacher A3), and another teacher described it as a “cultural shock” to teach in a school where she was a “minority” and where most of the students were bilingual (Teacher D1). So, although two teachers said they had hosted foreign exchange students, and some teachers mentioned brief international travel, most teachers acknowledged their exposure to diversity began when they started teaching in Southwest Kansas.

Teachers also reported limited experience with learning a second language. Only the two teachers who were foreign-born reported knowledge of another language beyond a basic level. One teacher explained she had no background with another language (Teacher A3), another reported she spoke very little Spanish but could understand it (Teacher A1), and another said he spoke “redneck” and “foul language,” but didn’t speak any language other than English (Teacher H1). Some teachers did claim to make an attempt to learn a little Spanish, so they could communicate with students and parents (Teacher A1; Teacher F2; Teacher I1). For example, a high school teacher with a high percentage of Spanish-speaking EL population said that she was becoming more aware of the Spanish language; she explained, “I know all the bad words, and I know commands” (Teacher D2). Teachers’ exposure and knowledge of a second language is relevant to KPD, because it suggests teachers’ interest in language, their background in language studies, and their understanding of what learning a second language means.

What Teachers Need to Know

Like instructors and other KPD stakeholders, teachers were asked to describe what they believed teachers who work with ELs should know. Unlike their instructors, however, teachers emphasized techniques and practice and individual students’ background over issues related to language learning and cross-cultural knowledge. Although there was a range of responses related to skills or knowledge they believed to be important when working with ELs, responses fell primarily into five general categories: affective/social skills, cultural awareness, language practices, background information, and strategies and practice.

The following analysis focuses on the 26 teachers whose interviews were transcribed completely. Of these 26 teachers, nine had completed all the courses and the Praxis exam,

whereas the others had taken only a few of the classes before opting to take the “Praxis only” route to endorsement.

Affective/social skills. Of the 26 teachers, five reported that teachers need affective or social skills to know students’ interests, make students feel comfortable in the classroom, or build relationships. Teachers reported that when students feel comfortable teachers can “get a lot more out of them” (Teacher E4). One high school science teacher explained that he made adjustments to his randomly-assigned lab partners to strategically place the ELs in his classroom with particular students they could work well with. He explained that he did it because “they’ll work better and they’ll be more comfortable, and I think that’s part of recognizing ELs is making them feel comfortable” (Teacher G3). Teachers’ also noted the importance of relationships and building trust; a high school math teacher stated that ELs “need to be able to trust that you know what you are doing, that you’re,—that you’ll work at the level that they’re at” (Teacher D1). The same teacher elaborated, “Once a student trusts you and you have a relationship built with them, then you can go about the process of learning a language” (Teacher D1). For the most part, teachers who mentioned the necessity of affective or social skills connected knowing the ELs to helping them in the classroom.

Cultural awareness. When describing what teachers who work with ELs need to know, eight teachers stressed the importance of cultural awareness or sensitivity, including both explicit (aspects of culture that are readily visible) and implicit culture (aspects of culture that are held out of conscious awareness) (Hall, 1976). These teachers felt it was important to know that ELs “all come from different places” and have different backgrounds with different motivations (Teacher F4), and that “different cultures have different ways--different...things that are accepted and not accepted” (Teacher F4) and thus “might respond to a stimulus differently than “native-

born kids” but that “it doesn’t make them stupid or dumb or um, unmotivated” (Teacher I1).

These teachers identified cross-cultural differences, such as how ELs might not make eye contact when a teacher is talking (Teacher A1; Teacher A4) or differences in concepts of time (Teacher H1). Teachers from a district with a high population of German Mennonites mentioned that some students retained their culture after being in the U.S. while others did not. One of those teachers felt it was important to recognize that students even within the same cultural group wouldn’t display the same characteristics because of different degrees of assimilation or acculturation (Teacher B1), and the other teacher observed that “the boys can be disrespectful to women” and explained, “It’s part of their culture” (Teacher B2). She believed that it was helpful to know that about their culture, so that teachers could address the students without making them feel threatened (Teacher B2).

Moreover, these teachers believed that knowing something about the differences in the students’ culture and the U.S. mainstream culture could help them avoid a misunderstanding. In addition, it could help students “understand maybe that transition between the two cultures and the two languages” (Teacher A4). One preschool teacher explained that having an understanding of culture helped her respond to community members’ negative comments about Mexicans who worked at local dairy and spoke Spanish (Teacher A1); the teacher connected knowing about culture to advocating for ELs and their families.

Language. Twelve teachers mentioned aspects of language that teachers should know when working with ELs. Several teachers noted they should be aware of their own production of language when teaching ELs. For example, one teacher whose first language is not English stated, “I always try to slow my speech down, make my words, you know, finish them out instead of being slurred” (Teacher E2); she emphasized avoiding “lengthy words” that aren’t in

the ELs' vocabulary. Another teacher talked about modeling "correct speaking habits" and demonstrating the correct language form back to an EL when a language error was made (Teacher G5). Teachers also said they were aware of the language they produced that might be confusing for ELs; they explained certain expressions or idioms, like "You're driving me up a wall" (Teacher G7) or avoided them all together (Teacher E3). Teachers felt it was important to monitor their own language use when working with ELs to make the language more understandable.

Another major area of emphasis with regards to language was vocabulary as a way to overcome the "language barrier." For example, a math teacher felt it was important to "just make sure that you are emphasizing the vocabulary," reviewing basic words, and working on pronunciation (Teacher A3). Teachers said "vocabulary is essential" (Teacher F4), wanted to know students' "vocabulary limit," (Teacher C1) and suggested using picture cues to introduce new words (Teacher G5). One teacher explained the importance of vocabulary in helping ELs; "If you don't get that figured out right away then you're going to—it's a dog chasing a tail, over and over and over. You're not going to get anywhere. You are just going to go in circles" (Teacher C1). A couple of high school teachers connected Cummins' (1979) theoretical concepts of Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) to the need for teachers to understand how to prioritize the vocabulary ELs need, present it effectively, and help students "move back and forth" between BICS and CALP (Teacher D2). For example, a high school science teacher said that many times he had assumed that because ELs could communicate and speak English, they understood the lesson. However, when he examined the students test scores, the "language barrier" appeared through the lack of proper use of science terms (Teacher G3). And a middle school teacher reported teachers needed

to understand and discuss the structure of academic texts, and this was something he attempted to do in his middle school social studies class (Teacher B1). Finally, two teachers listed language development or language theory as areas that teachers needed. To elaborate, one elementary school teacher said teachers needed “educational knowledge of the stages that they [ELs] go through and the ways that you can ease them through language difficulties” (Teacher A4), and a preschool teacher said language development and oracy were “guiding lights” when working with ELs (Teacher F2).

In sum, half of the KPD teachers mentioned they needed to know aspects of language when working with ELs, although their general emphasis on vocabulary-building suggests that they might not fully grasp other, more cognitively challenging, aspects of language that ELs struggle with, such as English verb morphology, syntax, pragmatics, and literacy practices. The remaining teachers did not mention language as a necessary focus of study. Even after their involvement with KPD, many teachers did not report language structure, language development, or language theory to be important when working with ELs.

Background information. Twelve teachers reported that it was important to know the background of ELs, as this knowledge would give them a better understanding of the students’ needs. Descriptions of background included information relevant to the ELs’ home life (such as their families, languages spoken at home, and experiences in the United States) and educational background.

Teachers reported that information about ELs’ home life and families could help teachers understand the students’ values, support networks, and motivations. An elementary teacher explained that there was a “big partnership” between the school and the students’ home life, and teachers needed to know what was going on outside of school (Teachers A3). Teachers wanted to

know how much support and “homework help in English” the students would be able to get at home, so that they could recommend afterschool tutoring (Teacher A2) or take into consideration if the students would be able to complete the homework on their own (Teacher E5). A high school math teacher believed it was important to know students’ “family cultures;” she explained that many aspects of their home life were different, including where they were from, their financial situations, what they do after school, and why they are in school. By understanding the students, she could “trigger” their motivation which made it easier for her to get them to learn (Teacher E1). Another teacher commented, “You also need to understand that in all—not in all homes is education considered important, so you have to instill that love into the child, so that they can continue on their own” (Teacher G5). Teachers also reported that classroom teachers needed to know what language was spoken at home, and if the students had any opportunities to practice English (Teacher E5). Four teachers noted that teachers should understand students’ experiences in the United States, which included the support system of the ELs (Teacher D2), how long they had been in the United States (Teacher E6), and how long they had been going to school in the community (Teacher G3).

In addition to these aspects of “home life,” teachers also indicated it would be helpful to know about the students’ educational backgrounds. Two teachers gave just very brief mention to “school life” (Teacher A3) and “academic issues” (Teacher E8), three teachers provided detailed information related to the students’ educational backgrounds that could be useful in the classroom. For example, one high school teacher wanted background information about the students’ previous educational experiences to determine their “starting point;” she noted that ELs have many different experiences and the knowledge they bring to the classroom would be varied (Teacher D2). Other teachers reported that an understanding of students’ communication skills or

reading ability in their first language would be helpful (Teacher E6), and that previous educational experiences, including standardized tests, ESOL language assessment scores, and information about interrupted schooling were needed (Teacher A2), so that teachers could make informed decisions about the best way to support the students.

Techniques and practice. Teachers reported that when working with ELs, they needed to know particular techniques and implement specific practices. Fifteen teacher participants mentioned an aspect of techniques and practice, and this was the largest of the categories. The teacher responses related to strategies and practices can be divided into several subcategories, including differentiation in the classroom, visuals for the students, and other general information about the classroom.

Most of the teachers who mentioned techniques and practice mentioned differentiation or “Just meet[ing] the students where they’re at” (Teacher G5). A high school teacher mentioned that many teachers feel that ELs who are coming into the classroom should just “get at [teacher’s] pace”; however, she felt that students benefit from teachers who will work with them at whatever level they are (Teacher D1). Teachers mentioned being flexible with the lesson plan and the schedule (Teacher B1), giving students extra time, and providing accommodations or support from the ESOL support staff (Teacher G3). A high school teacher wanted to know what students were capable of doing in their first language and wanted to make the appropriate modifications with the guidance of the ESOL teacher to help students do well in the classroom (Teacher E6). Another high school teacher felt that teachers needed to recognize that ELs would probably benefit from “more hands-on stuff,” “more activity,” and “peer things” rather than just listening to a lecture (Teacher G3). From teachers’ comments, it is clear that some felt that changes to the classroom instruction could help ELs understand the material better.

Another area of techniques and practice was the use of visuals in the classroom. Several teachers mentioned that it probably helps ELs to have “something visual” (Teacher E4), and they try to include “a lot of visual, lot of technology pieces in [the] class—Just to kind of help them out” (Teacher E5). Teachers said, ELs “just need picture cues” (Teacher G5) and “sometimes using pictures helps” (Teacher E2). Among the 15 teachers who mentioned a technique or practice as something teachers needed to know, four mentioned the use of visuals as a way to help ELs. The frequency of “visuals” in the responses and the simple way teachers mentioned them suggests that teachers have a somewhat limited understanding of how visuals can be used effectively.

Other responses focused on specific practices teachers could do in the classroom to help ELs. These areas were not repeated among the participants but illustrate the teachers’ focus on practice. Teachers should find ways to improve students’ writing (Teacher B2), be clear on expectations and instruction (Teacher D2), provide the proper support so students could do their homework independently (Teacher E7), and build students’ background knowledge (Teacher E3). A high school teacher said that working with ELs forces the teacher “to become an organized teacher” because they needed to put in place the tools (including the written objectives, the word walls, and arrangement of the room to allow for communication) that would support the students (Teacher D2). As demonstrated in these comments, teachers believed that it was important to know specific techniques and practices when working with ELs.

To conclude, teacher responses related to what teachers who work with ELs need to know fell into the five broad categories: affective or social disposition, cultural awareness, language, background of students, and techniques and practice. Although there was some overlap in what teachers and instructors reported to be important, there were also meaningful differences.

Teachers emphasized the importance of techniques and practices but mentioned aspects of language primarily in terms of vocabulary. In contrast, instructors' responses showed a balance between practice and theory that also included varied aspects of language, second language acquisition, and theory. The differences in the teacher and instructor responses is especially noteworthy considering that nine of the 26 teacher participants whose responses were analyzed for this section had completed all of the ESOL courses and had successfully passed the Praxis exam. It can be reasoned that after taking the courses, their responses should have more closely mirrored those of the instructors who taught the courses.

Busy Schedules: “We do everything”

In addition to the challenges already presented, teachers had both personal and professional obstacles barring them from full participation in KPD. Even though teaching in any setting comes with constraints of resources, time, and staff, KPD teachers reported their roles as in-service teachers in rural areas came with job-related responsibilities that required considerable time and commitment. The teachers taught full-time, coached and sponsored other extracurricular activities, while also trying to balance their family and personal responsibilities. Among all stakeholders, “teacher responsibilities” was coded in the data 138 times and for one teacher the code appeared 14 times in the hour-long interview (Teacher C1), suggesting it was a major concern among participants. Furthermore, teachers reported that KPD instructors did not understand the diverse roles and responsibilities of teachers in small schools.

Teaching roles. Teachers reported their roles in small rural schools were different from those of teachers in suburban or urban areas, and they considered themselves to have very busy schedules. The interview data from two teachers serves to highlight teachers' busy schedules within their schools. First, a high school math teacher at the smallest of the KPD districts

reported that in her school she was the only one in the math department, and as such, she taught six different courses a day ranging from seventh grade math to college algebra. With just a 45-minute planning period each day, she had to prepare lessons and assessments and grade student work for these classes. She said, “There’s still a lot more work that I have to put in than I think somebody that teaches at a big school (Teacher A3). She added, “We don’t have the resources [that larger schools do]. We don’t have the staff. Um, budget cuts—we’ve lost some of our paras. We are even shorter staffed than what we were” (Teacher A3). Second, a middle school teacher reported that in addition to teaching, she worked on the assessment data for the school which took time outside of school hours (Teacher E8). Even though she wasn’t a coach, she used her plan time to cover classes for those teachers who were coaches and she helped with the sporting events (Teacher E8). The teacher explained they were also “asked—well, basically required” to work with an intervention program for a month after school, and to monitor another two weeks of detention during the year. With budget cuts, the number of staff decreased while teacher responsibilities increased. Administrators agreed with teachers; teachers at rural schools had many responsibilities and they were expected to know about every specialty, including ESOL, migrant education, special education, and wellness (Administrator A).

Descriptions of teaching duties were often intertwined with participants’ explanations of why the teachers did not participate fully in the KPD courses or finish the KPD courses. There was just “not enough hours in the day” for teachers to attend to all of their responsibilities while also taking on graduate courses (Administrator G1). A kindergarten teacher described the challenges of teaching full-time while also taking the KPD classes; she worked almost every Sunday and stayed last most days to prepare her lessons (Teacher F2). The teacher said that she could make the time for the KPD courses, but “It’s a matter of choices” (Teacher F2); her choice

was to leave the KPD program. Teaching responsibilities combined with the KPD requirements led many teachers (Teacher B1; Teacher C1; Teacher E1; Teacher E2; Teacher G3), to leave KPD and seek endorsement through the exam route.

Extracurricular roles. In addition to working full-time, KPD teachers took on many extra roles in the schools. They explained that in rural schools there are fewer staff members to sponsor and coach extracurricular activities and programs, and so everyone had to do a little more. Teacher coaches were especially vocal about their busy schedules and not having time for KPD courses or the coursework. They taught all day, went to practice, and if it was a night that the KPD class met, they'd be at work "from seven [in the morning] until class was done" around 8:30 in the evening (Teacher E1). Teachers described that because of coaching and game schedules, Wednesdays were their only nights off. As the KPD videoconferencing courses were scheduled for that day, it took away coaches' only "down day" (Teacher E7). In addition, most coaches were involved in several sports throughout the year. For example, a teacher who served as the assistant coach for boys' basketball was also the head coach for girls' basketball, and golf coach for girls in the fall and boys in the spring (Teacher G3). Even if teachers took a season off, they stayed busy with other activities; a teacher who had been coaching "all three sports" for 31 years finally took a season off, but then stayed late to open the weight room for his students. The teacher said, "I'm still up here busy with the kids. And to me that's more important than all this other stuff" while waving his hand over one of the KPD binders he had pulled from the shelf (Teacher C1).

Besides coaching, teachers helped with a variety of school and community activities. For example, one teacher was the sponsor of an organization that collaborated with community organizations, ran a community service club, and was the junior class sponsor which meant

helping organize and put on prom. She was no longer a coach, but she continued to help out by taking tickets at the game (Teacher E3). Teachers' activities reached beyond the boundaries of school into the community; a teacher explained that a lot of the work with Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, youth groups, and other community groups "gets dumped" on teachers, because people know they care for kids and assume they get off work at 3:30 in the afternoon (Teacher G5). Teachers attempted to balance their many responsibilities with KPD courses, but many described their busy schedules as a factor that hindered their participation in KPD.

Even though teachers reported they were too busy for KPD courses, it can be argued that the matter really comes down to their priorities and beliefs about the activities they considered to be the most beneficial for their students. On one hand, the teachers' comments about being so busy can be viewed as them making assumptions about what students need and making decisions to continue the status quo rather than divert time and attention to meeting the needs of a new and different sector of their student population. Perhaps the comments were a way to obfuscate their reluctance to incorporate ESOL education in their courses. On the other hand, perhaps teachers considered the return on investment related to the KPD courses to be minimal in comparison to the other activities they could offer students. Either way, the notion of "busy teachers" shaped the teachers' experiences and perspectives of KPD.

Personal lives. In addition to teaching and extracurricular activities, teachers' personal lives, which included family responsibilities and health concerns, required teachers' time and attention. Most of the KPD teachers had children and they talked about how busy they were keeping up with their activities, taking care of them, or spending time with them. At least six KPD teachers added a baby to their families while they were enrolled in the KPD courses, and others had several children in school (Teacher G5), in college (Teacher E6; Teacher F2) or

starting families of their own (Teacher E2). The comments from a high school teacher and coach illustrate that teachers struggled to balance their family obligations with all of their other responsibilities; when she was in KPD, the teacher had just had a second child and both her husband and she were coaching. The teacher felt she was “pulled in every which way” (Teacher E7); she was trying to balance family responsibilities, coaching, and grading and planning for her own classes while also being pushed by the district to complete the ESOL endorsement. The teacher stated, “I just know—My responsibility as a teacher, and coach, and a mom, and it was too much for me” (Teacher E7). The teacher decided to take the exam with hopes of becoming endorsed, and at the time of the interview, she was waiting for her score.

Many teachers reported they left KPD to focus on their family priorities. Three examples typify teachers’ comments. First, a high school teacher said that with two little kids at home, three older daughters, teaching and refereeing games, the idea of subjecting himself to more KPD classes was not a priority (Teacher E6). Second, another high school teacher reported the district pushed her into the KPD courses at a very busy time in her life; she had a child who was a senior in high school, a daughter with health complications, and a new granddaughter. She said, “There was a lot on my plate, and the last thing I wanted on my plate was the class” (Teacher E2). The teacher described “life happening” as one of the reasons she stopped taking the KPD courses and sought endorsement through the Praxis. The third teacher who had taught for 32 years didn’t have young kids at home, but after teaching all day, she just wanted to go home and put up her feet and rest (Teacher I1). The teacher didn’t complete the KPD courses and took the Praxis exam instead. These three teachers are representative of the many other teachers who struggled to balance the KPD courses and their family priorities.

Health was another aspect of the teachers' personal lives that shaped teachers' experiences with KPD. Teachers noted that while they were in KPD, they experienced the death of their parents (Teacher E7), a spouse's illness (Teacher E3), or their own health concerns (Teacher E6; Teacher I1). Additionally, teachers often described their experiences with a particular course by also talking about some health challenges, either their own or those of family members. For example, a teacher reported that she "hated" the linguistics course and didn't find it relevant. When I asked for more information, she said, "My mom was in the hospital that summer too, so I could have cared less about that one [course]" (Teacher E1). While the teacher began by saying the course was not relevant, she revealed that her experience with the course was influenced by what else was going on in her life at the time. In fact, teachers reported that health issues took time away from KPD and ultimately played a role in them deciding to leave KPD. For instance, when I asked a teacher who had taken two courses why she stopped taking courses, she responded, "The cancer." Although the interview data from this particular teacher revealed a more nuanced answer, which included district pressure, the relevance of the courses to her teaching, and the focus on theory throughout the courses, her initial response indicates that health concerns were a significant factor in shaping her decision to leave KPD.

KPD teachers often compared themselves to other university students who were enrolled in the same TESOL courses. Teachers felt that graduate students on campus were not as busy and they could devote much more time to studying (Researcher memo, May 25, 2012). One teacher said, "People who are still in graduate school don't have the—the demands that in-service teachers have. It's different" (Teacher E1). The teacher said that those graduate students "haven't started life yet" and probably had no health problems, weren't married, and didn't have

kids like many of the KPD teachers did (Teacher E1). Moreover, some teachers expected instructors to make accommodations for them as their lives were busier and they had more responsibilities.

To conclude, teachers reported that their professional roles and their personal lives prevented them from devoting time to KPD courses. Responsibilities as full-time teachers, combined with extracurricular roles, and family responsibilities in addition to the KPD courses left teachers feeling overwhelmed, “kind of burned out” (Teacher H3), and “tired” (Teacher G6). Even though teachers recognized instructors’ flexibility with the course schedule and assignment deadlines, (Teacher C1; Teacher E3; Teacher E7; Teacher F2; Teacher F4), they also said university instructors lacked understanding of demands on their time (Teacher G3). Basically, in-service teachers “just didn’t have the time to be inundated” with everything that the instructors thought they should know (Teacher G6). While a few teachers reported “reading everything” for the courses (Teacher A2; Teacher E1; Teacher E5), most reported that the courses took a backseat to their other responsibilities (Teacher B1; Teacher C1; Teacher E3; Teacher G5; Teacher G6), and some even admitted they divvied up the work (Teacher G3; Teacher G6; Teacher E8) or did just enough to get an “A” in the course (Teacher B2; Teacher C1). As teachers struggled to balance all their responsibilities, they left KPD and turned to the Praxis route to endorsement “just for some relief” (Teacher F2). Whether KPD teachers in rural schools were actually busier than teachers in suburban and urban schools is a question beyond the scope of this research; however, what is important is that KPD teachers perceived themselves as being busy with not enough time to devote to coursework.

Summary of Southwest Context

Participants described their experiences and perspectives of the KPD program as it related to their districts, school, and the ELs in their classrooms. As noted earlier, the nine districts displayed variety in the number of ELs, their backgrounds and language diversity, and the support offered to them. The need for effective PD related to ESOL was demonstrated as teachers described their own EL populations, provided narrow definitions of ELs, or didn't see the need to provide support to them. Even though all districts had at least some ESOL support services, much of the responsibility of educating ELs fell on classroom teachers, and these teachers need to have adequate understanding of their ELs, their backgrounds, language proficiencies, and academic needs to provide adequate support in the classroom. The need for PD was further illustrated when teachers described what teachers who work with ELs need to know; they emphasized techniques and practice and students' background over other issues, such as language learning and sociocultural factors. Lastly, as nontraditional students, KPD teachers described having many professional and personal responsibilities that prevented them from engaging completely in rigorous graduate-level courses. These aspects of the teachers as situated in the context of Southwest Kansas played a role in how they experienced and explained their experiences with KPD.

The Kansas Context

Besides the context of Wheat University and Southwest Kansas, the larger context of Kansas was relevant to KPD. Funding issues and the ESOL endorsement process played a role in how participants came to the KPD program and how they perceived their experiences during the program. To elaborate, districts pushed for teachers to become ESOL endorsed, partly because the EL student contact time with teachers who were ESOL endorsed brought in additional funds

for the districts. Also, the decision from the Kansas State Department of Education (KSDE) to allow for ESOL endorsement by exam meant teachers could fulfill endorsement without completing or even taking any ESOL coursework. I will explore these two aspects of education in Kansas as they relate to the participants' experiences with KPD.

Funding

At the time of KPD three components were taken into consideration for state ESOL funding in Kansas: the number of qualifying students, the number of qualifying professionals, and the number of hours that the districts' ELs received specialized English language instruction (KSDE Workshops 2013-2014). Qualifying students had to have a home language survey which indicated a language other than English was spoken at home. In addition, qualifying students were those identified as "limited" in any domain of English language proficiency (i.e., reading, writing, speaking, listening) after completing the recommended language proficiency assessments. For the purposes of funding, a qualified teacher was one who held an ESOL endorsement, passed the ESOL Praxis test, had a provisional license, or had a plan of study on file (which required the teacher to take at least one course a year). Funding could also be received when paraeducators under the direct supervision of an ESOL-endorsed teacher had contact time with ELs, either in the classroom of an ESOL-endorsed teacher or during pull-out services (KSDE ESOL/Bilingual Education Program Guidance 2011-2012). The ESOL state funding could be used for teacher or paraeducator salaries and benefits, instructional materials, supplies, or PD related to improving instruction for ELs.

Additional information about two KPD districts illustrates what the funding formula meant for districts. In 2010-2011, the EL population at District F was 44.5% and the district had many ESOL supports in place. The district received approximately \$2.5 million in ESOL state

funding because of the 9,947.5 contact hours it reported. In comparison, the EL population in District E was 15.3%, and there were few ESOL services provided. With just 650 contact hours reported, the district received under \$200,000 (KSDE Budget Information, 2011-2012). As demonstrated, even for districts who reported few clock hours, the ESOL state funding could be a significant source of funding.

District push for endorsement. District administrators were acutely aware of the number of endorsed teachers within their districts. Most administrators could state how many teachers were endorsed, which ones were taking classes, and identify who wasn't endorsed without looking it up. For example, an administrator said that about five of the 25 to 30 staff members at the district were not ESOL endorsed, and those who weren't were veteran teachers who were "on their way out and would prefer not to have to deal with it" (Administrator H). Other administrators also reported that a majority of their teachers were endorsed or in the process of getting endorsed (Administrator C; Administrator E2; Administrator G2), and only one administrator who was new to the district couldn't provide the numbers during the interview (Administrator E1).

Notably, district administrators demonstrated that they were primarily concerned with the end goal of having teachers endorsed. In discussing the teaching staff, administrators didn't distinguish between teachers who went through ESOL coursework and those that took the Praxis-only route to endorsement. As administrators discussed the number of ESOL-endorsed teachers, the path of how the teachers got the endorsement was not as important as the teachers just being endorsed.

District administrators and ESOL coordinators also reported a recent increase in the number of teachers who were ESOL endorsed. For example, an ESOL coordinator in an urban

area with a high EL population said when she came to her position four years ago, there were 14 teachers working on their endorsements, and in 2011-2012, they had 53 working on them through three different universities and another 141 teachers who were fully endorsed (ESOL D). Although ESOL coordinators still struggled to recruit secondary teachers (ESOL D; ESOL F), roughly 60 percent of the teachers in the District D were fully endorsed or working on a plan of study (ESOL D). As the number of ESOL-endorsed teachers increased, much of the education of ELs shifted to the mainstream classroom teacher.

KPD recruitment. The KPD grant was designed so the project coordinators in Southwest Kansas would work with school administrators to identify teachers to participate in KPD. At first school administrators identified teachers who might be interested and passed along their information to the project coordinators; however, at some point during KPD, the recruitment efforts morphed into pressure from the administration. Administrators' description of their recruiting efforts varied; for example, one administrator encouraged teachers to enroll in the KPD program, shared information about it, and offered district support (Administrator A). Others presented it to teachers and required them to participate to fulfill the district expectation of ESOL endorsement (Administrator B; Administrator C). Some administrators reported no role in recruiting teachers to the program, but they knew ESOL endorsement was encouraged or required in their districts (Administrator G1; Administrator H). The descriptions of how KPD teachers were recruited help to reveal how teachers' involvement with KPD is situated in the context of the districts.

The information about recruiting suggests there was a difference in teacher and administrator views in how recruiting took place; administrators reported "encouraging" teachers to become ESOL endorsed, but teachers felt "pressured" or "forced." The view of recruitment

efforts also helps contextualize the different approaches districts took in getting their teachers endorsed. To elaborate, in districts where teachers, administrators, and ESOL coordinators described KPD as an optional PD opportunity, no teacher reported being forced or pressured to become endorsed. However, in districts where ESOL endorsement was a requirement, teachers reported feeling forced to enroll. As the discussion below will illustrate, teachers and administrators viewed teachers' participation in KPD courses differently.

Teacher views of endorsement. Three areas of teachers' views of endorsement will be explored here: their motivations for pursuing the ESOL endorsement, their views of the endorsement as it relates to funding, and the ramifications of not being endorsed. Together these areas help to illustrate the role of the district in getting teachers to the KPD program.

Motivations. Teachers reported several reasons for seeking the ESOL endorsement (Table 4), and their motivations to become endorsed were mostly tied to their districts. To summarize, teachers were interested in KPD, because they wanted graduate credit hours for recertification or to move up in the pay scale. In addition, the ESOL training and endorsement would mean they were more marketable if they decided to leave their current positions. Teachers were also interested in KPD because tuition for the courses was paid for by the grant, and several teachers thought the TESOL coursework would prepare them for the Praxis. Several teachers wanted to learn how to help their ELs. Many of the teachers' reasons for participating in the program were related to their positions in the districts, their professional roles, and professional gains.

Table 4

Teacher Responses for Seeking ESOL Endorsement

Reasons	Teachers
Receive graduate credit hours	Teacher A1; Teacher A2; Teacher A3; Teacher E5; & Teacher E7
Use hours to recertify	Teacher A2; Teacher A3; Teacher E7; Teacher H1
Move over in the pay scale	Teacher E5; Teacher G3
Become more marketable	Teacher A1; Teacher A3
Receive free tuition	Teacher A1; Teacher A3; Teacher A4; Teacher D2; Teacher E5; Teacher E7; Teacher F4; Teacher G3; & Teacher G7
Help ELs	Teacher D1; Teacher D2; Teacher E3; & Teacher F4
Prepare for Praxis exam	Teacher A3, Teacher E3

Although there were many reasons teachers had for seeking the ESOL endorsement, the most common reason was that it was a district expectation or requirement. Teachers at six of the nine districts reported feeling pressured to become endorsed. To illustrate, of the ten teachers interviewed at District E, seven framed the reason they took the endorsement as being “forced,” “strongly encouraged,” or “pushed” by the district. Teachers from District G had similar experiences; of the eight teachers interviewed there, five said they were forced or strongly encouraged to get the endorsement, and another teacher said endorsement was “promoted” by school administrators (Teacher G4). Although the specific language teachers used to describe why they were interested in becoming endorsed varied, teachers’ comments indicate they did not necessarily come to the KPD program voluntarily. Teachers in only three of the nine districts reported not being pressured to become endorsed; they described being presented with the opportunity but felt they could choose not to become endorsed (District A; District D; District F).

Teachers from two districts described becoming involved in KPD endorsement to fulfill a requirement of their contracts. A teacher explained:

I guess when we applied for a job and filled out the application, there was something on our application that said, ‘Would you be willing to get ESL endorsed if asked?’ And I guess we all put ‘yes’ on that and so, that’s how we were—that’s what they used for us to say that we had to get endorsed. (Teacher E4)

Teachers explained they had signed a contract stating their willingness to become endorsed at the time of hire, but in six years of teaching with three different superintendents and two building principals, it was never discussed again (Teacher E1; Teacher E5; Teacher E7). Then when a new administrator came into the district at a time when KPD offered graduate credit hours at no cost to the district, it became a requirement (Teacher E7). In other words, even though the teachers indicated their willingness to become endorsed when they were first hired, they felt pressured because the enforcement of the rule came years later at a time when it was convenient and free for the district.

Funding. Many teachers made the case they were pressured to become endorsed because of the additional funding it would bring to the districts. Some teachers even stated there was no reason for them to take the KPD courses other than district funding. For example, a high school math teacher in a district with few ELs said she didn’t need the hours for recertification, the graduate level credit hours didn’t move her over on the pay scale, and the courses didn’t make her a better teacher; she only began the ESOL endorsement process because the district wanted her to do it for the additional funding (Teacher E1). Another teacher at a district with the highest EL population of the KPD districts claimed that being endorsed only helped the school bring in more funding. The teacher felt the only purpose of the endorsement was district funding; she commented, “We just can’t cut anymore [staff positions] and we need that funding” (Teacher

B2). The comments from these two teachers serve as examples of a trend (evidenced in Table 5) in which teachers connected the endorsement to funding purposes.

Table 5

Teacher Comments Related To Endorsement and Funding

Teacher	Comment
Teacher B2	“We were made to get that endorsement for the school funding or we would lose our job.”
Teacher E1	“The school wanted me to have it [endorsement] because they wanted the money.”
Teacher E2	“The reason why they are so hip on getting everybody ESL endorsed is money. School districts are trying to get anything they can to get that extra money. You know what I’m saying? They’re trying to get as many people out there—teachers out there endorsed, so they can bring more funds in because the budget cuts.”
Teacher E4	“They get funding for teachers who have ESL kids and are either working on or have their ESL endorsement, so I think that’s—so, obviously funding is an issue for all schools, that’s one way that the school could acquire more money.”
Teacher E5	“I think we were pretty much told that we had to take it. I mean it was something that they get funding if we are ESL endorsed, so I think that we were kind of pushed into the program.”
Teacher E8	“Because um—[sigh] of the budget crunch, we were pretty much told, yes, you will do this? And because as long as we’re taking ESL classes, um, then the district gets more money.”
Teacher H1	“To be real, real honest, it seemed like the school was going to get money if you were on your way. So, ‘Hey get in there, take that class, won’t cost you much, won’t cost you anything, and we get more money than we’re putting out. It’s a good deal for us.’”

Even teachers who were not forced to take the ESOL endorsement linked the endorsement to funding. For example, a teacher who was to retire in a few years explained that he was “grandfathered in,” so he wasn’t required to get an ESOL endorsement. However, he began the KPD coursework to “help the school out”; the school received additional funding because he was on a plan of study (Teacher E6). He had no intention of pursuing an ESOL endorsement until “things got critical with the money situation” in the district, and then the teacher took four courses before withdrawing from the program. Though he did not become

endorsed, the district received additional funding for each year he was enrolled in a TESOL course.

Teachers' motivation to seek the endorsement for district funding became even more apparent in the follow-up interviews with 12 teachers (Table 6). Participants were asked to name all the possible reasons a teacher might seek an endorsement, and together we compared their responses to a list (which included ELs, graduate credit hours, financial gains for the teacher, district expectation, district funding, and recertification) compiled from the first round of interviews. Only one teacher added to this list; she said, "preparing for the Praxis" (Teacher E3). One participant looked at the cards and commented, "It's like perfect. [Laughs]. You learned something through this, didn't you? These are the main reasons" (Teacher G3). The participants ranked the reasons according to their own motivation to take the TESOL coursework, and they explained why they sought the ESOL endorsement. The findings from these follow-up interviews demonstrate that teachers linked the endorsement to district funding issues. Moreover, the teacher comments illustrate that the goal of PD to help ELs was masked by the issue of district funding.

Table 6

Teacher Responses to Ordering Reasons for ESOL Endorsement

Teacher	1	2	3	4	5	6
A3	R	G	E	F	DF, DE	
B1	E	DE	DF	R, G, F		
D2	E	F	DE	DF		
E1	DE	F	DF	E	R	G
E2	DE	R, G	E	DF	F	
E3	E	P	G	R	DF	DE
E7	DE	G	F	E	R	DF
F2	DF	G	F	DE		
F4	E	G	F	DEs	DF	R
G3	G, R	E	F	DEs, DF		
G5	DE, E	F	G	DF		
G6	DE	E	F	DF		

Note 1: R, G, E, F, DF, DE, and P refer to recertification, graduate credit hours, ELs, financial gains, district funding, district expectation, and Praxis, respectively.

Note 2: Teachers D2, F2, G5, and G6 said that certain reasons were not applicable to them, and those reasons were not included in the table.

Teachers' responses to the activity reveal that district expectations and funding were a priority for many teachers. Of the 12 teachers who participated in follow-up interviews, five listed district expectation as the first reason they sought an ESOL endorsement, and these five teachers came from districts where teachers reported they were they were asked, encouraged, pushed, or forced to become ESOL endorsed. Six of the participants ranked district funding and expectations together, and many more connected the two through their comments. For example, a teacher at a small school noted the ESOL endorsement was important because, "We need all the money we can get" (Teacher B1). Even teachers who did not place district expectation and funding together when ranking the cards, connected the two when they discussed their motivation for taking the ESOL endorsement. For instance, a teacher who placed district expectation first and district funding last said, "In my opinion, the district expecting [the endorsement] was because of the district funding" (Teacher G5).

Teachers' perception of the interaction of district expectation and funding can be explored in the responses of three teachers from the same district. The teachers who were interviewed together but ordered the cards independently all listed "district expectation" as the first reason they sought the ESOL endorsement. Together the three teachers explained they were sent an email that said "it would be in [their] best interest" (Teacher E7) to sign up to do the KPD courses by a certain date. Teacher E1 felt like they were told, "Here's the deadline. Get it done." Teacher E1 said she was forced to do the endorsement because of district funding. Teacher E2 said she didn't even realize the district received additional funding until after she completed it. Teacher E7 knew that having an ESOL-endorsed teacher was good for their district with regard to funding, but she responded to the activity based on her own personal reasons. Notably, all three teachers from the district placed "district expectation" as the first reason, but their discussion of "district funding" differed.

A pattern emerged in cases where teachers did not prioritize district expectation or funding. Teachers who did not list either as a primary reason for doing the endorsement were either from districts that didn't require it or they prioritized their own personal gains. For example, a high school teacher at a small district with few ELs knew the district received additional funding for endorsed teachers, but it wasn't a "deciding factor" for her in taking the KPD courses (Teacher A3). The teacher noted that with the size of district, any small changes could drastically change their population and might make the ESOL endorsement an expectation or a requirement later (Teacher A3). Teachers placed district expectations and funding low on the list was because they prioritized their own gains in doing the endorsement. One teacher explained he was motivated by "selfish reasons" for him and his classroom, namely free credits, moving over on the salary schedule, making more money, and being able to serve students in the

classroom (Teacher G3). The teacher was aware of how much funding influenced the district expectation. He explained, that the district expectation and funding “weren’t a big deal to me, but I know they were to the district” (Teacher G3).

In addition to highlighting the role of district expectation and funding, the interview activity also revealed where teachers placed “ELs” in the list of the reasons they sought the ESOL endorsement. In follow-up interviews five teachers indicated they were seeking the ESOL endorsement primarily to help the ELs in their classrooms. They claimed that being endorsed would be beneficial to their students (Teacher G5), and they wanted their students to understand the lessons (Teacher B1; Teacher D2; Teacher E3; Teacher F4). However, teacher responses in the first and second interviews did not match. In their first interviews, when teachers were asked why they pursued the endorsement, they said teachers said endorsement was mandatory (Teacher B1), it was free education (Teacher F4), or it was part of PD plan (Teacher D2; Teacher G5). Only one of the five teachers said in the first interview that she wanted to do it to help her ELs. However, in the second interview these five teachers put ELs as their first reason they sought the endorsement.

Even though many teachers associated the ESOL endorsement to funding, many were not sure for what the ESOL funding was used. Some of the participants said the funding helped the district buy things they need or helped buy services and materials for the ELs. Other teachers felt extra funding didn’t really do any good for the ELs, because the money went into the general fund or helped pay for coaches or something else. Others said they had no idea what the funding went toward, and just one said that because she was ESOL endorsed she was selected to be on a team to decide how the extra funds would be spent in the district (Researcher memo, August 23,

2012). Even when teachers were recruited to become endorsed because of funding issues, they had an incomplete picture of how that money was to be used.

Ramifications. The pressure to become endorsed was clear as teachers described the possible ramifications of not becoming endorsed. Teachers' descriptions fell into two broad categories, job security and work climate. In brief, teachers connected the ramifications of not doing the ESOL endorsement to conditions in their districts.

Because districts could decide not to renew teacher contracts for untenured teachers, job security surfaced as concern. Nineteen of the KPD teachers were new teachers with less than six years of experience at the time of the interviews, which means that when they began the KPD program they were untenured. Not all of these 19 teachers expressed concerns about losing their jobs if they did not do the endorsement, but many did. For example, a teacher new to the district but with 31 years of teaching experience said he sought ESOL endorsement because, "It was kind one of those things, they put the pitchfork to my backside and said, 'Get in there. Uh, or you know, go find another job'" (Teacher C1). Another teacher put it simply, "We were made to get that endorsement for the school funding or we would lose our job" (Teacher B2). Teachers felt their jobs were at stake, especially at a time when districts were eliminating positions because of budget crunches. A teacher with just three years in the district at the time of the interviews described the ESOL endorsement as a type of protection from being cut from the school, and if she were cut, it would help her be more marketable in future job searches (Teacher E6). Another teacher was worried she wouldn't get tenure if she didn't do the ESOL endorsement and she "didn't want to take that chance" (Teacher E1). Essentially, untenured teachers reported being pressured by their districts, and in a time of budget concerns, not being renewed was a strong possibility.

Teachers also reported a change in work climate as a negative consequence of not pursuing ESOL endorsement. One teacher who reported being pressured to do the endorsement and said teachers got their “arms twisted pretty hard for the funding” said teachers who didn’t do it heard about it every now and then (Teacher H1). This teacher was confident he would face the pressure from the district until the endorsement was finished. Another teacher who was within a year of retirement at the time of the interview explained the only reason she enrolled in KPD was because of the district expectations. She explained, “I didn’t want to take any flack” (Teacher G6, interview 2). I asked if she felt her job was in jeopardy, she responded, “They couldn’t [let me go] because I was tenured, but you’ve never been in a classroom apparently—Or where you’ve had administrators or whoever, superintendents that are just so forceful that you would rather just not hear it, you know. I don’t do conflict” (Teacher G6, Interview 2).

These findings are significant because it helps us understand why the KPD teachers were taking the KPD courses. Their primary motivation wasn’t to help ELs in their classrooms, but to become endorsed so the district could receive additional funding. Teachers didn’t arrive to KPD with the goal of helping their students by making adjustments to their teaching; rather they came to KPD to accomplish the district task set before them. Because of the pressure, teachers were concerned mostly with getting endorsed, and when an abbreviated route to endorsement became available, many opted out of the KPD coursework.

District administrators’ views of the endorsement. Administrators and ESOL support staff reported two main reasons they wanted the teachers in their districts to pursue an ESOL endorsement. First, teachers with endorsements could better help ELs, and, second, districts could receive additional funding. District administrators’ perspective of the endorsement sheds

light on how some classroom teachers came into the KPD program and provides information about the context in which the KPD program operated.

Help ELs. Administrators and district ESOL support staff reported that a benefit to having teachers endorsed was that teachers would be better prepared to help students in the classroom. Administrators felt a TESOL program was “an opportunity for an educator to learn more about good teaching” and specifically, with SIOP [Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol] teachers could learn how to “to break down a lesson to its roots” and “writ[e] up an objective on the board on what you want to achieve” (Administrator G1). Furthermore, PD allowed teachers the opportunity to be able to see how “an ESL kids thinks” and to understand their difficulties when they are in the classroom. Teachers could learn “some little tricks to the trade” through the ESOL endorsement process; for example, teachers could learn strategies, learn to make connections with students, and learn how to set up the instruction (Administrator C). An administrator in a district with a high percentage of ELs provided a bit more detail; teachers who received PD could become prepared to understand the challenges ELs might have, learn the tools to address needs, learn basic concepts of second language acquisition, realize the importance of the connection between the families and schools, and learn how to make modifications for students in classrooms (Administrator B/C).

ESOL coordinators provided specific and detailed descriptions of how the endorsement could be beneficial to a classroom teacher. A coordinator at a district with a high percentage of ELs in the student population said teachers had to make adjustments to their “core instruction” and incorporate strategies in the mainstream classroom (ESOL D). It was “extremely important” for classroom teachers to take courses to become endorsed, because they “need to know methodology and they need to know strategies, you know, research-based strategies and then

they need to know about assessments and what type of, of assessments are best for students” (ESOL D). Teachers also needed to know the students’ language level, proficiency in their native language, strategies to use, cooperative learning, and other tools; furthermore, the PD could help teachers learn strategies that they could use with ELs. The ESOL coordinators reported that the ESOL endorsement would make teachers “better equipped to work with second language learners, and address their academic and social needs” (ESOL F).

Funding. Administrators reported that in addition to helping ELs, the benefit of having teachers endorsed was that it brought in additional funding into districts. In fact, three of the eight administrators mentioned funding first in describing the benefit of having teachers with the endorsement. Furthermore, funding related to the endorsement process was a topic revisited several times throughout all administrator interviews.

Administrators explained that the benefit of having ESOL-endorsed teachers was that it brought money to the district. When asked to describe the benefits, an administrator responded:

Well, the number one thing, as we sit here in budget crunch time is dollars. Uh, we get funding for every, like it’s basically contact minutes for when our ELL kids are in contact with um ELL certified uh staff members, we receive essentially funding for that. So it’s a return on investment. (Administrator E2)

According to administrators, the additional state ESOL funding impacted the programs the district provided to their students. Administrators viewed the endorsements as more than having the teachers help ESOL students directly in the classroom, but thought about how their endorsements contributed to the “bigger picture” (Administrator E2). An administrator explained:

As an administrator standpoint, this [funding] is huge for us because—or as a superintendent’s standpoint, because at [District B] we are 70% ESL, well, you know that’s over 100,000 dollars, you know, and we use it to employ teachers with. And if we don’t have that, then, you know, we don’t get to split our junior high grade levels. And now they are all—you know, we go from 14 or 15 [students] in a class to 29 or 30. And it’s because of the money it generates. (Administrator B/C)

The funding helped with “everything”—summer school, smaller class sizes, paraprofessionals, and purchase of curriculum and materials. An administrator demonstrated the benefit of the funding to the classroom:

ESL funding is directed towards ESL kids, but it’s also—it’s kind of like a shoot off of your general fund. You spend it in a variety of ways, but it all goes back to the classroom. It probably has more direct classroom emphasis than how you spend your general fund. (Administrator B/C)

As ESOL endorsements brought money in, some district required teachers to complete it. When teachers were hired at these districts, they were told they had five years to complete the endorsement, either by taking four Praxis prep sessions or by taking the college courses that prepared them for endorsement (Administrator B/C):

Bottom line is we do get funding, and, you know, and that’s one of the reasons why—other than having 60% of our student body—but that’s why our board requires it here. If you come here we, we don’t—we don’t hire or fire you over not having it, but once you’re here we expect you to get the ESL—and we tell it to them during the interview. (Administrator B/C)

The district required the endorsement because of the funding, but the administrator recognized it could also bring direct benefits to students.

As it was such a large part of the funding, administrators reported strategic moves to increase the funding generated by the state ESOL funding. District staff labeled high-performing students as ELs for as long as possible (Administrator E2), identified more ELs by “knocking on some doors and finding some more kids that qualify” (Administrator G2), urged teachers to take the Praxis exam to increase the number of ESOL-endorsed teachers (Administrator E1; Administrator G1), and placed ELs with teachers who had become endorsed (Administrator E1). Administrators demonstrated the districts’ interest in ESOL endorsement was not just about having the teachers endorsed so they could help ELs; the administrators wanted ESOL-endorsed teachers so that they could increase the contact minutes that ELs had with qualifying teachers, and, thereby, the increase state funding.

Administrators explained the funding helped with the “big picture” in the district. In contrast, when ESOL coordinators talked about funding, the focus was on how funding impacted ELs. ESOL coordinators noted that ESOL funding was helped ELs because it provided additional PD related to ESOL and materials. For example, an ESOL coordinator from an urban area with a high percentage of ELs said administrators needed to inform teachers how the ESOL money was being used; the funding provided them with the additional PD, supplies, materials, curriculum, and parent involvement activities. She suggested that teachers should be able to verbalize the reasons they were doing the endorsement rather than just saying ““Well, they’re making me do it, so that they can have more money”” (ESOL D).

Ramifications. Administrators responded to teachers’ comments about the possible ramifications of not becoming endorsed in two ways. On one hand, administrators confirmed that

the consequences of not seeking an ESOL endorsement were real; when hiring or cutting positions, they would regard a teacher with the ESOL endorsement more favorably than a teacher without it (Administrator B; Administrator C). One administrator explained that the ESOL endorsement wasn't a requirement in the district, and he added, "But let's be honest, one [teacher] willing to get it and one not willing, I'm going with the one willing to get it" (Administrator E2). The administrator who had been at the district when KPD began said that he could empathize with some of the teachers' comments about being forced to do the ESOL endorsement; he described the process of recruiting teachers to the program as "messy." He also added that he didn't know if the teachers were "forced" but did admit they were "encouraged at least" (Administrator E2). Another administrator from the same district listed "Keeping your job" as a reason teachers might sought an ESOL endorsement (Administrator E1). In addition, administrators felt teachers had no excuse not to do the endorsement if they didn't have to pay for the courses on their own (Administrator E1).

On the other hand, administrators reported that teachers' concerns about losing their jobs or not being renewed were overstated. The administrator who said teachers might do the endorsement to keep their jobs also said teachers in subject areas "are rarely hired because of the fact that they have ESOL endorsement" and the endorsement is a "frill" (Administrator E1). Because the ESOL endorsement was not the primary reason they hired teachers, he didn't "put much stock" in the statement about teachers being concerned about losing their jobs. Although he was not in the district when KPD began, he felt confident the district did not force any of the teachers to take it. He concluded, "I don't know if there's any district in the world that would force you to do that" (Administrator E1). On one hand he recognized that teachers might decide

to do the endorsement to keep their jobs, but on the other hand he minimizes teachers' comments about being forced to become endorsed.

Other administrators showed their skepticism of the potential ramifications by bringing into question how teachers were presented with the ESOL endorsement opportunity.

Administrators noted the way the district expectation of ESOL endorsement was brought up to teachers could influence how teachers perceived the consequences of not becoming endorsed:

Are we doing it in a way that's mean-spirited, tough? – 'My way or the highway type of approach?' Or, 'This is what you need to do to be a better teacher. This is what will help the district.' That sort of approach? (Administrator E1)

Another administrator mentioned that it might be important to "pad the delivery" of the district requirement (Administrator E2).

In summary, the district focus on funding masks the purpose of the ESOL endorsement process as a way to become better prepared to meet the needs of ELs. Teachers reported they were in the KPD program to increase the district funding, rather than learn how to help their students with content and language and provide a more culturally responsive classroom. District administrators viewed ESOL endorsement mainly as a way to increase the district funds, and because the focus was on endorsement, the path teachers took to become endorsed was not important. For district administrators, teachers who completed graduate level coursework, took Praxis prep sessions, or just passed the exam had all achieved the primary goal of becoming endorsed. Of less importance was the degree to which these teachers could put in practice the basic concepts of TESOL (Researcher memo, August 23, 2012).

Praxis Exam

In addition to the way additional funding was allocated to the districts, the Kansas context related to the endorsement process also shaped KPD and participants' perspectives of the program. A change in the ESOL endorsement process presented by KSDE and approved by the Kansas State Board of Education (Board minutes, June 2008) allowed for ESOL endorsement by exam only. According to participants, the decision impacted the number of teachers who participated in and completed the KPD program, influenced the work of several stakeholder groups, and created a situation where many participants acted in contradiction to their ideas about effective PD.

The process for endorsement in Kansas changed during the first year of KPD. The KPD grant application was submitted in the spring of 2007, and at that time the requirements for endorsement included taking courses that addressed cultural diversity, language acquisition, assessment, methods, linguistics, and a practicum with ELs. In addition, the teachers had to successfully pass the Praxis. The first cohort of KPD teachers began their coursework with these requirements, but in June 2008, the Kansas State Board of Education approved new licensure regulations which allowed teachers to add the ESOL endorsement to their teaching license by taking and passing the Praxis without any required coursework. Although KSDE recommended that teachers take the TESOL coursework prior to taking the exam, it was no longer a requirement. The purpose of the exam was to assess teacher's knowledge of many of the same topics covered in the TESOL courses (including foundations of linguistics and language learning, instruction, assessment, understanding culture, and professional aspects of working with ELs). The possible score range (the lowest to highest scaled score possible on any edition of the test) was 100-200, and to pass the Praxis in Kansas, teachers needed to score 138 or higher.

Notably, the passing score for the Praxis ESOL test in Kansas was lower than that of any other state that used the exam (Praxis Series Passing Scores by Test and State 2014). As the change in the ESOL endorsement process happened at the beginning of the grant, study participants believed it significantly impacted the KPD program and its outcomes.

Impact of the Praxis decision. The Praxis decision influenced the number of teachers involved in KPD and stakeholders reported it also shaped their perspectives and experiences with the KPD program. Program directors, the evaluation team, and the educational center responded to the decision, and they reported the endorsement process impacted their involvement with KPD. Stakeholders also demonstrated they acted in ways that were counter to what stakeholders believed to be best for students, teachers, and districts.

Change KPD numbers. According to many study participants, the change in the endorsement process had a negative impact on the enrollment and retention rates of KPD teachers. The first cohort of 24 teachers was in their third semester of courses when the changes took effect; seven of these teachers went on to complete the coursework and become endorsed. The second cohort recruited for KPD had only six teachers, but as the result of “constant communication” between the educational center and the program staff regarding recruitment and retention (Director 3) and the districts’ push for endorsement, KPD recruited 23 teachers for the third and final cohort. By the end of the KPD program, 53 in-service teachers had been involved in KPD, 12 of them completed all the KPD coursework and passed the Praxis to become endorsed, 16 sixteen stopped taking the KPD coursework but became endorsed by completing the Praxis, and 25 teachers did not complete either the KPD series of courses or the Praxis. Of the 36 in-service teachers who participated in this study, 12 had completed all the KPD coursework and Praxis, 11 stopped taking the KPD coursework but became ESOL endorsed by

passing the Praxis, and 13 had not completed either the coursework or the Praxis. As evidenced by these numbers, KPD had challenges with enrollment and retention, and many participants reported them to be a result of the change in the endorsement process.

Program directors. Program directors who managed KPD at different stages of the program reported that the change in the endorsement process negatively impacted the number of KPD teachers who were recruited and how many completed the program. The director who was with KPD when the decision was made reported she was initially concerned with what the decision would mean for the grant, but it “didn’t really seem to change much” other than having a few teachers drop the program and making recruiting a little bit harder (Director 4). Directors who followed reported the decision “devastated enrollment” as “teachers were signing up to take these classes with us only to find out that they could just take a test and get the same thing—the same bump in their salary with their districts, the same endorsement” (Director 6). Even though enrollment of new teachers had ended and the decision was made two and a half years before the last director for KPD came onboard, he also reported having to “deal with that new thing” (Director 2).

The change in the ESOL endorsement process not only impacted the numbers in KPD, it also shaped the way directors viewed KPD. The change hindered them from seeing other issues in the program. To illustrate, directors talked about the many teachers who dropped out of the program to become endorsed through the Praxis route; however, KPD records show that only 16 of the 53 in-service teachers actually took this route to endorsement, and 25 just dropped out. While the decision may certainly have impacted teacher enrollment and retention, the numbers suggest that teachers were dropping out of the program for other reasons as well.

Though the endorsement change was a significant challenge faced by KPD, other issues dogged the program as well. A director suggested that the Praxis decision was used as excuse for low enrollment and completion rates, and he wondered if the KPD staff used the decision as a scapegoat (Director 2). Focusing on the Praxis as the reason teachers didn't complete the program was a pattern often repeated among directors. This was particularly evident in an interview with a program director who began to address other KPD challenges but consistently returned to the topic of the endorsement process. For example, she noted a "lack of continuity" in the program as there was high turnover among the program directors, said there was a time where no one was "paying attention", and the grant was "just "plugging along, but with no one pushing an agenda" (Director 1). However, she placed most of KPD challenges on the Praxis decision; "95 percent of the problem was the fact that they changed the rules" (Director 1). This pattern of returning to the endorsement process was repeated at least four times in the interview; the director briefly mentioned other challenges but quickly redirected the conversation to the change in how teachers become endorsed. All of the other challenges seemed to take a backseat as the directors focused their attention on the endorsement process.

Evaluation team. The evaluation team reported that the Praxis decision negatively impacted their efforts to evaluate the program. As fewer teachers enrolled and completed KPD, the sample size of teachers was reduced so much that the type of research and evaluation the team planned to do was no longer possible. They intended to do a quasi-experimental design with three groups of teachers: those trained with KPD, those trained in another program, and those "completely untrained" (Evaluation 2) to determine the extent to which teachers incorporated components of SIOP in the delivery of a lesson. They expected a minimum of 15 teachers for each group, but the sample size of the KPD teachers "minimized the power of the

study” (Evaluation 1), and in the end the evaluation team couldn’t complete the anticipated research. Furthermore, the KPD grant was originally written with a focus on secondary school teachers, but with a struggle to recruit eligible teachers, directors casted a wider net and opened the program to more elementary school teachers than anticipated. The inclusion of elementary teachers made the research design “very dirty” as it increased the number of variables, confounded the research, and made data collection efforts more difficult (Evaluation 3).

According to the evaluation team, not being able to produce meaningful research decreased the potential for publishing, and as a result, their motivation for working with the project. The changes in the sample population “rendered the project to be much less interesting from a research perspective than we thought we might get at the very beginning” (Evaluation 1). KPD began to conflict with the model underlying the work of the evaluation team, which was to get involved in grants with research potential (Evaluation 1).

Although the change in the ESOL endorsement process created some issues for them, the evaluation team seemed to present it as just one of the many challenges of KPD. Evaluation team members described the “tension” created because of the “lack of communication” and misunderstandings about their role in the evaluating the program (Evaluation 2). The frequent changes in directors and their varied understanding and interest in evaluation meant the evaluation team had to explain their role with the program, describe their research efforts, and detail the new directions they had taken (Evaluation 3). Because there was variability in how the directors valued program evaluation and the “degree to which they value[d] the independence of program evaluation” (Evaluation 1), evaluation team members continually had to explain and defend their evaluation decisions. These challenges are presented to demonstrate the evaluation

team's awareness of the other challenges of KPD; they viewed the Praxis decision as just one challenge among many.

Educational center. With the change in the endorsement process, districts turned to the educational center to ensure their teachers would be endorsed, and even though project coordinators reported mixed feelings about it, the center responded by providing the Praxis prep sessions to in-service teachers. The recruitment and implementation process of these sessions contributed tension to an already tenuous relationship among KPD stakeholders.

The prep sessions came about as the educational center responded to a growing need of the districts to have their teachers endorsed. In January of 2009, superintendents requested that the educational center create a series of workshops to help their teachers pass the required test for ESOL endorsement (ESOL Praxis Preparation Outline document, 2010; Coordinator 1). A project coordinator who had taken a few TESOL courses was assigned to provide the workshops, and in preparation to deliver them, she and a colleague took the exam. Together they created four six-hour sessions, based on the four sections of the test (Coordinator 1). The \$135 fee for the four sessions was often covered by districts. Through the years, the demand for these prep sessions grew, and in 2011-2012, the education center offered the series eleven times (Coordinator 1), which suggests they were meeting a need of teachers and districts in the area.

Project coordinators from the educational center reported mixed opinions about the prep sessions. On one hand, the sessions were regarded as a success because a high number of participants were able to pass the exam on the first attempt (Coordinator 1). The sessions provided a much-requested service to the districts and allowed teachers to meet the district expectation of becoming endorsed without having to take courses. As a result of the endorsements, funding to districts also increased. Furthermore, by taking the prep sessions,

teachers were exposed to basic concepts of TESOL and were provided with suggestions to help ELs in the classroom (Coordinator 1).

On the other hand, project coordinators were concerned about the prep sessions. One coordinator declined to take part in providing the workshops, saying that professionally she felt teachers needed to take the TESOL courses to be prepared (Coordinator 2), and the other accepted the task with some reservations. She explained teachers might not learn about the application of information in the prep sessions, and she admitted that as an educator she really couldn't support just having them take a test (Coordinator 1). She explained that she wasn't in a position at the education center to decline to teach the sessions, and she wanted to be responsive to the requests of the districts (Coordinator 1). The coordinator acknowledged she "worked both sides of the sidewalk" in recruiting and supporting teachers in KPD while also encouraging them to take the prep sessions to become endorsed.

The Praxis decision, and more specifically, the role of the educational center and project coordinator in creating Praxis prep sessions created tension in KPD. One program director who was particularly vocal about his concerns said the sessions undermined the efforts of KPD. He described it as a "self-defeating type of thing" where the project coordinators were supposed to help KPD teachers prepare for the Praxis at the end of their coursework, but the coordinator began preparing teachers for the exam even if they hadn't finished the coursework (Director 2). The program director questioned whether the coordinator recruited for the sessions from the KPD courses, and even questioned if the educational center was using contracted KPD time and money to recruit and offer the sessions to teachers (Director 2). Furthermore, having the project coordinator in these contradictory roles sent a mixed message to teachers; the coordinator was attempting to recruit teachers to KPD, but at the same time was advertising a quicker and less

time-consuming way to become endorsed. Even though the project coordinators were not full-time with KPD, and KPD did not have an “exclusive arrangement” with the educational center, the program director framed the coordinator’s involvement in the prep sessions as a conflict of interest. In sum, this program director, like others, reported the educational center used the KPD program for its own benefits, and in the process, damaged the KPD program.

Although the Praxis prep sessions were a source of tension for program directors, project coordinators were either not aware of the tension or minimized it. One project coordinator glossed over the how the sessions actually worked counter to the KPD goals; she stated, “It’s kind of hard to separate KPD, because the goal of KPD and the Praxis prep is to get the teachers endorsed” (Coordinator 1). The coordinator explained that the program and sessions were just going about the endorsement process in “different ways,” but there wasn’t a big difference between the two routes. The coordinator also didn’t fully capture the tension; she noted directors had been “understanding of the situation” and professors provided with materials for the sessions. However, the interview data suggest that both directors and instructors viewed the prep sessions as running counter to the goals of KPD, which undermined the efforts of KPD and rendered the endorsement virtually meaningless.

“Talking Out of Both Sides of My Mouth.” The Praxis decision created an ambiguous situation for participants of all stakeholder types where their perspectives of effective PD were in conflict with their actions. That is to say that participants felt the shortened way to endorsement was not an accurate measurement of teachers’ preparedness to work with EL; however, directors counted them as completers, district administrators encouraged teachers to become endorsed through the test only, and teachers left the KPD program and became endorsed through the Praxis route. Furthermore, instructors opposed the decision as it undermined university efforts to

provide PD to teachers and it rendered an ESOL endorsement meaningless; yet they modified their courses to better align with the test.

Program directors. Program directors expressed several concerns about the decision to allow for endorsement through the exam only and with the exam itself. Directors said the decision was “terrible” (Director 5), a “bad decision” (Director 3), and “a real disservice to the children of Kansas” (Director 6). Directors questioned what the exam told them about teachers’ knowledge about abilities to work with ELs (Director 3). Their concerns were amplified as the cutoff score for passing the exam was “a little bit too low,” and people who were “simply good test-takers” could pass the exam with little knowledge of ESOL or how to implement it in the classroom (Director 2). A program director summarized the concerns, “Are [teachers] really prepared? Do they really have the knowledge and the content they need to be successful in teaching? Or just enough knowledge to pass the test?” (Director 5).

Despite having misgivings about the Praxis endorsement route, directors acted in contradiction to what they believed to be best for teachers, schools, and ELs. Directors decided to count teachers who left KPD and later became endorsed through the exam as KPD program completers. On KPD documents and reports, a teacher who completed all the coursework and became endorsed was no different than a teacher who took one or two courses and became endorsed through the Praxis. By counting the exam-takers as completers, the directors were able to make the KPD appear more successful and report to the U.S. Department of Education that they had made substantial progress toward meeting the program objectives, a factor considered in awarding a continuation grant (Instructions for Grant Performance Report, 2010).

District administrators. District administrators expressed some of the same concerns as program directors. The Praxis wasn’t an adequate measure of teachers’ knowledge of working

with ELs, and they doubted if teachers who were able to pass the exam without coursework were really prepared to teach ELs (Administrator B; Administrator H). The following comment is representative of their views: “Just because you passed the Praxis exam in ESL, doesn’t mean you understand ESL endorsement or what it takes” (Administrator B). They felt that teachers who did the coursework were probably better prepared than teachers who took the “watered down” prep sessions (Administrator H) from the education center’s “diploma factory” (Administrator B). District administrators reported that in hiring and retaining teachers, they preferred endorsed teachers over non-endorsed teachers (Administrator B) but also valued the TESOL coursework over the Praxis route to endorsement (Administrator C).

While district administrators expressed concerns about the exam, they simultaneously reported that the shortened endorsement process brought benefits to their districts. Most administrators reported having fixed feelings about this route to endorsement, and one administrator even acknowledged he was “talking out of both sides of [his] mouth” (Administrator E2). An administrator’s comments serve to illustrate the view of many:

[I like] the idea that my teachers can become ELL endorsed just by taking a test, because that helps in the funding, but it doesn’t really help what their capabilities are in dealing with the ELL student, because all they’ve done is taken a test. (Administrator E1)

The administrator elaborated on his position on the decision; “If you’re talking to me from a financial point of view, it’s great. If you’re talking to me from an impacting the kids point of view, it’s not so good” (Administrator E1). Even though the administrator believed that just taking the Praxis might not impact the students, he urged teachers to become endorsed before changes were made that might make the process “longer” and “tougher.” The

administrator's comments show the tension; he didn't agree with the exam as a way to endorse teachers, but he encouraged teachers to take it anyway.

Teachers. Teachers shared two main concerns about the Praxis-only route to endorsement. First, teachers disapproved of the abbreviated route, because “just taking the Praxis test” shows that the teacher is a “good test-taker” (Teacher D2), but doesn't demonstrate that the teacher has learned what was needed to work with ELs (Teacher A4; Teacher B1; Teacher E3). One teacher shared, “A test is not going to make you an effective teacher” (Teacher B1), and many teachers made comments similar to a teacher who said the exam is just a piece of paper (Teacher E5). Teachers questioned what teachers were learning when they took the test route, and if they had become better prepared to help kids (Teacher E6). A teacher stated that those who go through the exam route may have “crammed enough knowledge to pass the test,” but questioned if the teachers were empathic and aware of issues related to ELs (Teacher H1). Second, teachers reported that PD was needed for teachers to learn more about TESOL. ELs would be better served by a teacher going through the coursework rather than a teacher who did the quick study sessions and took the exam (Teacher E5). Teachers stated that knowledge gained from the TESOL courses would help teachers apply the information to their classrooms, think about the material, reflect on their practice (Teacher D2), and make decisions in the classroom (Teacher A4). Overall, teachers reported that coursework, and not a test, would be beneficial for learning about TESOL.

Even though teachers reported the “Praxis-only” route didn't help teachers or their students, many took the prep sessions and completed the abbreviated route to endorsement. For this study, 11 KPD teachers who completed the Praxis without finishing all the coursework were interviewed—all of them expressed doubts about whether the exam could determine teachers'

preparedness to work with ELs. However, teachers took the Praxis route because it was less time-consuming than taking the series of graduate courses (Teacher B1; Teacher E7; Teacher E9; Teacher F2; Teacher G3). Teachers also reported taking the exam to alleviate the pressure from the district to become endorsed (Teacher E2; Teacher E5; Teacher F2; Teacher H3; Teacher I1).

A teacher explained:

The school had told me you need to have your ESL certification by a certain, certain date, so I just signed up for the test and went in and took the test. And said, I'm going to call it good. I'm just not going to try and do any more. (Teacher I1)

By taking the exam, teachers could avoid additional KPD coursework while still meeting the goal of becoming endorsed.

Instructors. KPD instructors opposed the Praxis route to ESOL endorsement for three main reasons: how the decision was made, the use of the exam as a measurement of teachers' effectiveness, and the perceived effects of allowing the endorsement by exam. Even though the instructors were experts in the field of TESOL, they weren't asked to provide their views on how to best prepare teachers to meet the needs of ELs. When talking about the Praxis, one instructor said, "When that happened in this state. Trust me. No institutions of higher ed[ucation] were asked if that was a good idea. It was done" (Instructor 2). Notably, instructors believed that the decision was largely an economic decision intended to bring additional state ESOL funding to districts. An instructor explained that even though the "yahoos" on the state board who made the decision "probably don't really know what's going on in schools and what teachers are facing," they decided that what was best for students was to have more funding for schools (Instructor 1). This decision, "purely driven" by funding, gave the appearance of helping schools, but instructors doubted it helped ELs much.

In addition, instructors opposed the change in endorsement because they felt the test was not a good measure of teachers' knowledge or ability to put TESOL concepts into practice. An instructor who described herself as "a little bitter about the whole thing" problematized the decision, saying it was "such an irony" that teachers could be defined as highly qualified when they had only taken an exam to become endorsed. In her view, they weren't necessarily better prepared to teach ELs (Instructor 1). Furthermore, instructors reported problems with the test itself; much was based on "intuitive teacher practice" (Instructor 1) and an exam like that measured "a little bit of knowledge about the history of ESL, a tiny bit about second language acquisition, a tiny bit about the methods in general, and professional issues for teachers" (Instructor 2). Instructors agreed that the most difficult part of the exam related to second language acquisition and linguistics, and that part of the test "only makes up a small fraction of the test and the passing score is like a 54%. So teachers can essentially fail the test and still pass and get the endorsement" (Instructor 1). Having the exam as a route to endorsement set the expectation low but having such a low threshold for passing the exam set the expectation even lower.

Lastly, instructors opposed the Praxis route to endorsement because of the possible effects of being endorsed without PD. Teachers could take and pass the exam with little or no training; instructors expressed concern that teachers wouldn't have the skills and knowledge needed to teach ELs effectively. Instructors reported the Praxis decision ran counter to research that suggests ongoing PD is helpful for effecting change in the classroom. One instructor explained, "It was one of the most ridiculous decisions that I've seen come out of a state board of education at a time when there was so much evidence and data to suggest that these kids really need well-prepared teachers" (Instructor 1).

Instructors reported the decision would have a negative impact on TESOL programs and the school of education. The endorsement could be viewed as “just a stamp on the license” and was now “meaningless” (Instructor 1). It seems that by making ESOL endorsement so easy to obtain, the significance of it was reduced in the mind of the instructors. An endorsement no longer meant that teachers had the knowledge of language, linguistics, culture, and pedagogy to work with students; it only meant that they had passed a test, a test that instructors felt required very little knowledge of ESOL.

Although instructors were probably the harshest critics of the Praxis decision, even they weren't immune to acting in ways that countered their reported beliefs. For example, an instructor adjusted her KPD course to align with the contents of the exam. Even though the instructor felt the pragmatics section of the linguistics course could have practical applications for teachers, she eliminated the section because it was not included in the Praxis. She determined their time would be better spent focusing on topics that were covered. In the interview, the instructor commented, “That sounds exactly like teaching for the test. Uh, um...So I guess I'm guilty of that, yeah” (Instructor 3). She also explained that when she made that decision she had already met the KPD teachers, and because “they weren't really willing to, to learn much,” she could at least prepare them for the test (Instructor 3). Instructors seemed to be resigned to working in the context created by the new endorsement process. One instructor felt that teachers shouldn't be able to just take the exam, “but it is how it works. . . . And the way that you get endorsed in this state is by that exam, that stupid exam. For better or worse, that's the bottom line for the state” (Instructor 2). Even though they disagreed with the decision, instructors had to work within the confines they were given.

Summary of Kansas Context

The context of Kansas, which included state ESOL funding and the process for endorsement, was particularly relevant to participant experiences and perspectives of KPD. As state ESOL funding was tied to the number of contact minutes ELs had with ESOL-endorsed teachers, district pushed, and sometimes even required, teachers to become endorsed. In addition, stakeholders of all types mentioned that the Praxis wasn't adequate to determine if teachers had enough information to effectively teach ELs; they reported that the Praxis route to endorsement did not prepare teachers like ongoing PD could. However, teachers took the exam to avoid time-consuming PD, districts encouraged teachers to take the test to become endorsed, and at least one instructor modified the KPD course to align with the exam. These aspects of education in Kansas, the formula for state ESOL funding and the process of endorsement, shaped teachers' and district administrators' goals for participating in KPD and impacted the program's outcomes.

KPD Courses

As described in the previous sections, there were several meaningful differences in what instructors and teachers reported to be important in working with ELs. In some cases teachers did not recognize or understand the need for ESOL education in their schools, especially when there were few ELs in their classrooms or these ELs seemed to have high proficiency levels. Instructors did not have solid understanding of the teachers' roles in rural schools or the ESOL population in Southwest Kansas. These factors collided in KPD, where the distance learning format of the courses hampered communication between instructors and teachers and contributed to the metaphorical distance between stakeholders' positions and goals. Furthermore, teachers reported the courses didn't meet their expectations, as they found the courses to be too theoretical and irrelevant to their teaching. In contrast, instructors emphasized the role of theory

in informing practice and described the KPD courses as teacher-centered and applicable to any teaching environment.

Distance Learning

Even though some colleges and universities provided educational opportunities in Southwest Kansas, there was no physical presence of universities that offered graduate work. Thus, through distance learning KPD allowed teachers who were in an “isolation situation” access to graduate courses without the driving time (Teacher A1; Teacher C1; Teacher D2) and without missing out on instructional time in the classroom (Administrator B; Administrator G1). Many participants acknowledged they had few options other than distance learning; for example, a teacher who described several problems with the videoconferencing courses concluded, “I’m not sure ITV is the best delivery, but what choice do we have out here?” (Teacher E2). Distance learning presented some challenges that seemed to widen the distance or gap between teachers and instructors, but as many participants stated, it was the only option that could allow teachers in Southwest Kansas access to courses.

KPD used three delivery formats to provide the TESOL courses to teachers in Southwest Kansas. Most of the courses were provided through interactive videoconferencing which provided a way for real-time audio and video interactions among teachers and Wheat University as the instructional site. Each of the five distance classrooms were simultaneously connected. Four courses were offered entirely online, and in these courses, teachers had a textbook, but they accessed the syllabus, additional reading materials, video and audio lessons, PowerPoint presentations, and assessments online. A few teachers had face-to-face sessions with instructors as part of the practicum course when the instructor and KPD staff travelled to Southwest Kansas to visit the teachers’ classrooms.

All of the delivery formats used Blackboard, an online course management tool, to distribute course materials such as syllabi, handouts, assignment descriptions, links, videos, and audio. The Blackboard site was also used to discuss additional topics, collect assignments, provide feedback, and administer online assessments. In addition, for some courses, class sessions were recorded and placed on Blackboard so students who missed class or needed to review the material could access it. Teachers and instructors also communicated via email, phone, or Skype. For some participants, the use of Blackboard and email helped close the gaps in the communication from the videoconferencing and online courses as they could communicate with instructors and ask specific questions. For others, the distance learning courses was fraught with challenges. Stakeholders reported the videoconferencing courses impeded communication, the online courses didn't provide enough support, and the face-to-face meetings were infrequent and inconsequential. In addition to these challenges unique to each delivery format, stakeholders reported there were challenges common to all.

Videoconferencing. KPD mainly used videoconferencing to deliver the courses to teachers in Southwest Kansas. KPD started the videoconferencing courses using the interactive television network, but early on shifted to the Polycom system, which was reported to be a more universal system with fewer problems connecting (Coordinator 1). Despite the shift, teachers and instructors reported challenges related to the technology and instructors' use of the technology.

Technology. For courses in which videoconferencing was used, the instructors and teachers turned on the computer, television screens, and cameras at their site, and then connected to the other sites. At the university a technology specialist or graduate research assistants helped with this process, and teachers reported that someone in their group usually connected to the session, but at times they needed the assistance of district personnel or a project coordinator

(Teacher B2). Connecting to the courses was critical for communication; when it worked well, teachers at the various sites could communicate with and see the instructor and teachers at other sites. However, when there were glitches in getting connected or staying connected, the video or sound didn't come through, or some sites disconnected all together (Teacher A3). Teachers reported they "always had the ITV glitches," and they were "constantly" dealing with "frustrating" technical difficulties (Teacher E2). A teacher described the frequency of the glitches, "I'd say at least half the time something would mess up. Maybe it wouldn't be like we couldn't get logged on, but we'd get disconnected in the middle of it and have to re-connect" (Teacher E4).

According to teachers, the frequent glitches in connecting to the course were significant for several reasons. First, the "technological difficulties" combined with the "constraints of time and distance" made teachers feel "sort of separated from other people" as they could not communicate effectively with other teachers or the instructors (Teacher I1). Second, teachers didn't get information about their assignments and the course material; they missed out on information about the course (Teacher E7), and they missed out on time to discuss the material (Teacher E2). Teachers reported the technical glitches impeded their understanding of the course material and the assignments. Third, teachers reported they felt they were "wasting their time" when the technology did not work. Teachers had already taken time out of their busy schedules to come to class, but when there were technology challenges, they had to watch the video of the course later on (Teacher E8) or just miss out on the class session. One teacher's experiences highlight the challenges; the teacher drove about 20 miles to class and then because of the glitches would often "get logged on or connected 20 minutes late." She explained, "And then you'd miss that much and you'd just be sitting there, doing nothing, wasting time when you had

300 other things to be doing” (Teacher E4). The frequent challenges with technology frustrated teachers and made them feel they were wasting their time when the KPD program already required so much time.

Instructors agreed with teachers; connection glitches were frequent and significant. An instructor echoed the description of the technology challenges given by teachers: “There was always a technological problem that first semester” (Instructor 1). When I asked her to clarify the frequency of the glitches, she responded that it was “almost” always:

Maybe by the very end, they got it all worked out, but it seems like nearly every class, I—you know, the—our tech people would try to get there early and set things up, but usually there’d be one site that we would have difficulty getting in either on their end or our end. (Instructor 1)

Instructors already had limited time with the teachers because of their other responsibilities, and the connection problems cut down on their teaching time even more. An instructor said she would plan material for the two-and-half-hour class, “But inevitably, there would be a half an hour of—of um technical difficulties and it pissed me off;” the challenges meant that she was going to have rush through all the material she needed to cover (Instructor 1). Besides having less time to teach the material, the instructor also reported the technical glitches to be “disruptive” and “distracting,” because they had to spend a lot of time trying to figure it out. By the end of the course, the instructor said she learned to just adjust for the technical glitches by not planning as much for the day (Instructor 1).

Though the connection challenges were frustrating for both the teachers and instructors involved in KPD, they acknowledged that the glitches were partly worked out during the KPD program as they became more familiar with the equipment and learned how to address glitches

(Teacher G5). A teacher described the first couple of semesters as “an absolute nightmare,” but also said that a lot of the “bugs have been taken out” and even said they had only one connection challenge when there was a “ridiculous snowstorm” (Teacher F4). Notably, most of the participants who mentioned the improvements in the connections were teachers who took all six TESOL courses and completed the endorsement process. It is possible that many participants had already left the program before the glitches were ironed out.

Another technology challenge mentioned frequently was the delay in the transmission. Although it was mentioned by only one instructor (Instructor 1), many teachers noticed and commented on it during their interviews. Teachers reported it was a delay of two or three seconds (Teacher A1), five to ten seconds (Teacher B1), or a two or three minutes (Teacher G7) between when a person spoke and the message was received. As communication between the instructors and the teachers was not instantaneous, the time it took for the message to be sent through the technology had implications for the interactions in the class sessions.

Teachers reported that the delay in transmission influenced their participation in the class. Communication in the courses was characterized as “strange” (Teacher G7) or “unnatural or annoying” (Teacher E6). Teachers didn’t have enough time to answer questions because of the delay; “They [instructors] would ask a question and they wouldn’t give us enough time, because there is like a three second delay. And then they would say, ‘Okay, well, if nobody knows the answer, we’ll go on.’” (Teacher A1). The time delay was more pronounced when the KPD teachers took the course at the same time as university students on campus as students answered the question before teachers in Southwest Kansas even heard it. One teacher described not feeling like she was part of the class, and said, “It was like we were just watching” the class (Teacher A). Another teacher said he had to remind himself that he was actually part of the class

and not just sitting down to watch a “DVD on how to teach ESL” (Teacher F1). In general, the challenges with technology “de-motivated” the teachers (Teacher E6); they were not willing to ask questions or participate in class discussions.

The comments from one teacher help to illustrate her experiences with the distance learning format:

I had a problem with the instructors and it was—I don’t know whether they were unused to teaching under that kind of situation, but I really was uncomfortable with the whole thing of sitting on camera, trying to listen to the instructor, and people who were sitting around the instructor would say things or ask questions. The rest of us at the other locations could not hear that person, because they weren’t mic’d or the instructor would move away from the microphone. And um, we were constantly either trying to get the instructor’s attention or trying to ask the instructor what he or she just said, um, or just sitting there and being frustrated and trying to figure out what was going on. . . . I just felt very disconnected, um, and cut-off from being involved in the classroom, um. It was just—it was a frustration level that really built up. (Teacher I1)

In the description, the teacher considers instructors’ experience with the technology, questioned the delivery of the courses, expressed frustration with the technology, and noticed a lack of personal connections to others in the courses.

In addition to the technical glitches and the delay in transmission, there were other challenges in delivering the courses. Teachers had problems viewing displayed documents, and in some cases, teachers had limited experience with computers or lacked access to computers and the Internet. Even attempts to overcome the problems, such as posting a video of the course session, were not feasible solutions because of the teachers’ schedules. These combined

challenges created a situation in the program in which the teachers and instructors struggled to communicate and interact.

Teachers and instructors were willing to accept some technology problems as part of the experience with the distance learning program. For example, after mentioning the problems with KPD and distance learning, a teacher concluded, “Distance-learning is a good thing,” because “You are still having class. You are still getting better at your job. You are still learning stuff” (Teacher B1). It seemed teachers were willing to put up with the challenges of the videoconferencing courses because they knew there “no way” they could take the TESOL courses other than through distance learning. Even though the use of technology helped bridge the physical distance between the teachers in Southwest Kansas and the instructors in Northeast Kansas, it also added a bit of distance in the interactions between them.

Instructors’ technology use. The original grant application described plans to include PD opportunities for the instructors to learn about distance learning and the technology needed for it. KPD was to provide instructors with training, preparation time, and technical support to deliver distance learning through videoconferencing and online courses (KPD grant application, 2007), and graduate research assistants and technology experts at the university were to help instructors with technology and teach them how to use it so that there would be “increased capacity among faculty” that would extend beyond the KPD grant. Though the grant proposal laid out plans for technology training and assistance, instructors reported few opportunities were available.

Instructors noted they had little training to work with the distance learning technology and what they did have was concentrated at the beginning of the KPD program when library support staff helped instructors upload their teaching materials to Blackboard and facilitated a

discussion of copyright issues (Director 5). KPD also brought in someone to demonstrate how to use ITV and how to switch between the video feed, document display, or the PowerPoint presentation, and the director offered to do practice runs with the instructors using the videoconferencing technology as well (Director 5).

At the end of KPD, two of the three instructors who taught the videoconferencing courses said they still weren't very familiar with the technology and relied heavily on the graduate research assistants to navigate the system. One instructor, new to videoconferencing courses, said with a laugh that he "partially" figured out how to do the videoconferencing courses (Instructor 2). The other instructor who was initially motivated to work with KPD so she could learn about distance learning explained:

The truth is that I was never able to teach uh a class without having a helper with the technology. I am—I might be too dumb or something, but I was never able to concentrate on it when I was talking, when I—on what I was doing in terms of the teaching the class and hitting the right buttons and making sure that the screen was the right one and everything. So I always had to do have somebody, um, which thanks to KPD, I always had somebody helping. (Instructor 3)

The third instructor spent some time before the course "getting familiarized with the set up" and attended a Blackboard training session, but she felt she did not need much training beyond that. Even though a graduate assistant was assigned to the course to help with technology, the instructor learned to manipulate the equipment and she "never needed anyone's help" (Instructor 1). She described the experience as empowering because she was able to learn how to deliver the courses without relying on the support (Instructor 1). Notably, this was the

only instructor who didn't have teachers in Southwest Kansas with a group of students on campus at the same time; she could focus entirely on the remote sites.

Instructors reported they made few changes to their courses to deliver them through the videoconferencing format. Instructors said they made “No huge adjustments” (Instructor 1) and “The technology allowed me to—to be myself, teach the same way I teach always” (Instructor 3). For the most part, instructors reported they continued to teach in the same way; they used PowerPoint presentations, showed videos, and simulated writing on the chalkboard by using the document reader (Instructor 1). At the same time, instructors reported they were aware of the physical constraints of distance learning. For example, one instructor said she was very used to being in front of the class and walking around, but with the videoconferencing courses, she was aware of “having to be in front of the camera and being careful not to move” so teachers at remote sites could see her (Instructor 3). The instructor also mentioned training herself to look at the camera to make it seem she was making eye contact with the teachers. Besides a brief mention of trying to “lessen the distance by being more personable” (Instructor 1), the only other adjustment was having to plan in advance to upload a link to a book, newspaper article, legislation, or journal article an instructor wanted to share (Instructor 3). While the few adjustments to their teaching might indicate instructors weren't constrained by technology, it might also indicate they overlooked approaches and opportunities that were particularly useful for distance learning.

The coordinator in Southwest Kansas who was tasked with the distance-learning aspect of KPD problematized instructors' use of technology and suggested additional training would have been beneficial. The coordinator provided an example of the challenge: when she visited a remote site during a course, teachers said the instructor wouldn't look at them or answer their

questions. She watched the course a while, and she noted the same thing. Finally, she interrupted the instructor to ask if he could see and hear the teachers at the remote sites because he was not interacting with any of them (Coordinator 1). After the visit, the coordinator arranged a meeting with the instructors to talk about some of the “very basic things” of videoconferencing, such as looking in the camera and setting up the monitors so instructors could see the remote sites. The coordinator noted that she should have complemented the university support and technology assistance with her own training for the instructors (Coordinator 1). The coordinator described it as a failure on her part, because she “just assumed” that Wheat University provided sufficient training to the instructors (Coordinator 1).

The coordinator mentioned that instructors should have had more training early on. The coordinator would have liked to talk to the instructors about organization and the importance of providing the course materials and syllabus to teachers in advance. She noted that each teacher should have the opportunity to be on camera and introduce themselves so they could get used to seeing themselves (Coordinator 1). Instructors should have created a system for reporting problems with the technology, and instructors needed to know they could use a variety of approaches with distance learning, just like they did in their traditional classrooms. According to the coordinator, it was also important for instructors and teachers to form a relationship and for professors to “take the time to get comfortable with the students and the technology,” something the coordinator felt didn’t happen with KPD (Coordinator 1).

Online. KPD records indicate that only four courses were delivered online, two by a TESOL faculty member, one by adjunct instructor, and one by a graduate research assistant. Three of the online courses were offered in the summer. For the online courses, instructors uploaded reading materials, videos, PowerPoint presentations, quizzes, and discussion board

forums to Blackboard. Teachers accessed the materials and submitted their assignments through Blackboard. Though the use of technology helped bridge the physical distance between teachers and instructors, participants noted that certain KPD courses were not well-suited for online delivery, and they reported problems with communication and engagement.

During the summer sessions, the delivery method of the KPD courses was entirely online to accommodate the teachers' schedules. Many teachers were out of town or "doing agricultural stuff" in the summer and they needed flexibility to work at their own pace (Instructor 1). An instructor explained that the intercultural awareness class was offered online during the summers because "the teachers wanted it that way" (Instructor 1). Several teachers reported they preferred the online format over the videoconferencing courses because of the convenience and flexibility and said they would have liked more courses to be online. Teachers liked online courses because they didn't have to attend class, they could fit the online classes in their schedules more easily (Teacher B2), and they could work at their own pace (Teacher F4). Of the few teachers who expressed a preference for the entirely online courses did so because of the convenience and flexibility, not because they learned more.

Teachers and instructors reported several challenges with online courses. First, certain subjects were not well-suited for online courses. Both linguistics and the intercultural awareness courses were offered online, but teachers made few comments about the intercultural awareness course being online while many expressed frustration with taking linguistics online. They reported that linguistics would have been better suited to a face-to-face course or videoconferencing course, so instructors could provide more assistance and answer questions. A teacher explained:

I guess with linguistics maybe you should be able to teach yourself it, but I could not do that. So um, I would think that would definitely need to be one where we are in class, and there is someone that can provide assistance or give you some insight into what is wanted or is desired. (Teacher E7)

The teacher explained that she couldn't understand some of the concepts from reading a textbook, and having an instructor to explain it "would have helped tremendously" (Teacher E7). Many teachers echoed the teacher's comments; they reported it was difficult to understand the material and even more challenging to apply what the course material to their classroom practice. Even the linguistics instructor reported that the topic was rather complicated to do in an entirely online class. She compared her KPD experience to teaching the course to another group of teachers face-to-face; in the traditional class, they were able to talk about linguistics, delve into pragmatics, and talk about how it could be applied in the classroom. She concluded "But that was easier because it was face-to-face" (Instructor 3).

Second, teachers reported that the online format did not allow them to ask questions, receive feedback, or interact with the instructors or other teachers. A teacher described the online course, "My experience in that one was buy the book, answer this question and this question based on this chapter, write this paper, here's your grade. I mean, I didn't feel connected really" (Teacher F1). Another teacher said that in the videoconferencing courses when there was confusion, she could ask her classmates, or "buzz in" and ask the instructor; however, in the online courses, she was "at home in the summer, just with the computer" (Teacher E4). In taking the course online, teachers missed the interactions with instructors and other teachers, and they struggled to understand the material. For example, a high school teacher said he did not understand the material in the courses and felt he needed more background information before

jumping into the graduate level material about TESOL. His comments highlight some of the problems of online courses:

There's no connection with anybody. I mean I know that they—the selling point is that you can do it on your own time. You can do it at your convenience and so on, but there's just—to me there's not a whole lot to be said for just reading a bunch of articles and doing some online assignments and projects and turning them in. I just—I don't get any benefit from that. (Teacher E6)

An instructor who taught an online course agreed with the teachers about the lack of interaction. Teachers needed the opportunity to discuss with each other, but the online course limited their interactions (Instructor 4). The instructor described a time in the course where teachers were to write a reflection about a time when they were in a situation where they were the minority. The instructor lamented that the teachers didn't get to hear each other's accounts or discuss the work further; they just turned in the work and then received feedback from the instructor (Instructor 4). He noted that if he were to do an online course again, he would design the course in such a way that teachers would read and respond to each other's writing. Additionally, the communication between the participants was further complicated by the flexible nature of the syllabus where due dates for assignments were only suggestions; with the teachers working at their own pace, there wasn't really a chance to interact with each other or have the students discuss the materials together (Fieldnotes, March 26, 2012, Instructor 4).

Face-to-face meetings. The third type of delivery format used in KPD was face-to-face meetings. The KPD grant originally planned for university instructors to travel to Southwest Kansas during the summer to offer a two-week course to teachers every year of the grant (KPD grant proposal, 2007). The intent was that instructors and teachers would form stronger

relationships, the instructors would learn about the context of Southwest Kansas, and together they would work to make the theoretical information applicable to the classrooms. These courses never materialized. A director explained that the courses didn't happen because the professors refused to go (Director 6); Wheat University couldn't insist that the faculty "hop in their cars and drive out" to teach the courses. Thus, because of the distance between the districts and the university, instructors and teachers had few opportunities to meet.

Two instructors visited Southwest Kansas; one visited the resource center and toured the area but did not meet any of the teachers or visit their classrooms during her one-day trip (Instructor 2). The other visited with several teachers and administrators when she supervised teachers who were enrolled in the practicum course at the end of their KPD experience. This instructor along with two graduate research assistants (including the researcher) was scheduled to visit four teachers in their classrooms and provide feedback about their lesson plans and lesson plan delivery. The team also met with several district administrators to talk about the KPD project and learn about the changing demographics of their school populations. In the final year of the grant, two graduate research assistants (including the researcher) and a program director visited the classrooms of five teachers enrolled in the practicum course to conduct observations and provide feedback.

Teachers and instructors reported that meeting face-to-face was valuable. Teachers learned from the feedback of the instructors and graduate assistants (Teacher D2; Teacher E5; Teacher F1), and the instructor learned more about Southwest Kansas, the increasing EL population, and the teachers' attempts to address the needs of the students (Instructor 1). The instructor said, "The practicum was nice—just being able to see them [the teachers] and I could tell they were all really happy that we made the trip down there" (Instructor 1). The face-to-face

interactions seemed to be well-received, and teachers said they wished they had more observations and interactions with instructors through both the practicum course and their whole KPD experience (Teacher F1; Teacher F4).

Although both instructors and teachers reported the face-to-face meetings to be valuable, there were several challenges. First, these meetings took considerable time and money. From the university to the KPD locations was about 400 miles, necessitating an overnight stay. KPD instructors, directors, and graduate research assistants traveled to Southwest Kansas on one day, visited classrooms the next, and traveled back the same day or the next. Even though the KPD grant had budgeted travel to and from Southwest Kansas, there were considerable expense related to mileage and lodging. In addition, both teachers and instructors had to carve out time for the visit.

Second, the face-to-face meetings were designed to be part of the culminating experience of KPD. Only teachers who were enrolled in the final KPD course, the practicum, were scheduled to meet with instructors. Of the 53 teachers who participated in KPD, 15 teachers (the 13 who completed all the coursework and an additional two who took the practicum without completing all the coursework) made it to the practicum course. However, about half of the teachers enrolled in the practicum said their observations were cancelled, and rather than meeting the instructor, they sent in a recording of their lessons. What's more, teachers reported they received no feedback (Teacher A3).

Third, the practicum experience was a one-shot observation by the instructor. Project coordinators visited several times with the teachers, but instructors visited once at the end of the teachers' practicum course. The KPD observations and practicum were not as intensive as the practicum experience with TESOL students on campus, where there is "much more contact,

much more ongoing, continuous contact, consistent contact with the practicum supervisor” (Instructor 1). The practicum experience was a one-time interaction tacked on to the end of the KPD experience as a requirement for passing the practicum course. The observations and interactions were not woven into the KPD program throughout all of the courses, and teachers mentioned that more observations and feedback would have been helpful earlier on in their KPD experience (Teacher F1; Teacher G4).

The final challenge related to the practicum experience was that the observations were considered not to be a significant learning experience for the participants. Of course, there was variation in how seriously the teachers took the practicum experience. An instructor said that of the four teachers she observed, two completed all the assignments and “seemed to do it conscientiously for the most part,” and one “took it very seriously and worked very hard” (Instructor 1). At the same time, the instructor described the practicum experience as a “pro forma thing” and “a joke”: it was “nothing that was really very meaningful for most of them, I think (Instructor 1). Teachers didn’t show up the day the KPD team was scheduled to visit, didn’t provide a lesson plan or provided one that was incomplete, or didn’t have any ELs in their classrooms so they couldn’t model the techniques from the courses. Some teachers “blew the whole thing off,” didn’t have “intention of doing any kind of teaching to a model that we had provided for them to do,” or “virtually made no effort” (Instructor 1). Not only was it difficult to see the impact of the courses on the practicum teachers’ teaching, but there wasn’t time or the relationship to help the teachers make the connection between their courses and their classrooms.

The teachers’ comments about the practicum experience suggest that they largely agreed with the instructor; the practicum was an “awkward” experience that did little to change their teaching (Teacher D2). A teacher mentioned that when she was observed, the observer didn’t

have any background information about the lesson; “I think it took her about 15 to 20 minutes to understand um what the class was about and what was happening and why it was happening” (Teacher D2). In contrast, when the project coordinator visited, the teacher reported, they had already formed a relationship and the coordinator knew the classroom structure and could understand what they were doing right away. Teachers couldn’t provide any specifics details about the feedback they received nor could they describe how they had changed their instruction based on the feedback (Teacher A2; Teacher B1).

In sum, there were challenges with each of the course-delivery models with KPD. The videoconferencing courses had many technology glitches, presented barriers to communication, and highlighted the lack of instructor experience and training. The online courses were not suitable for some subjects and allowed for little interaction among participants. The face-to-face sessions were infrequent, costly, and time-consuming. Many teachers said they would have preferred face-to-face class meetings over either videoconferencing or online courses (Teacher E2; Teacher E4; Teacher I1). They described KPD’s “biggest weakness” as the delivery method of the courses (Teacher E2); they didn’t like the “setup with the whole TV” (Teacher E4), they felt disconnected because of the technology, and believed they would have been “less frustrated” with a more traditional classroom setup (Teacher I1). Teachers wanted interaction and personal connections with their instructors and colleagues, something they felt didn’t happen in the distance learning courses. The perspectives of the participants highlight the tension in offering these courses both in the videoconferencing and online formats. The teachers want flexibility and convenience of an online course so they can fit it into an already busy schedule, but they also value the interaction with other teachers and instructors.

Distances related to all delivery models. While each of the delivery models had unique challenges and situations, there were themes that covered all three of the delivery models and relate to distance learning in general. School administrators expressed doubts about distance learning, teachers reported mixed opinions about the interactions among teachers, and distance learning made it difficult to form personal connections. Lastly, common to all types of distance learning formats was the role of the educational center in overcoming some of the challenges.

Administrator doubts about distance learning. Half of the school administrators interviewed shared doubts about the effectiveness of distance learning in providing quality PD to teachers. Administrators acknowledged they had few other options in Southwest Kansas, but they were hesitant about education moving in a direction where teachers and instructors may never meet. An administrator explained:

It's nice to have the ability to be at your site and still have interaction with college coursework. I can't say enough of, of positive aspect of technology in that respect. Um, again I hope it never replaces the, the true aspect of you being there with, with your colleagues and professor in a classroom situation. (Administrator G1)

Even while acknowledging the critical role of distance learning in PD in their area, administrators were guarded in their praise for it.

Even though most administrators had taken distance learning courses, or had experience using the technology (Administrator C; Administrator G1; Administrator G2), they expressed concerns about the use of it for the professional development of teachers. Administrators' first concern was that teachers could not learn as much from distance learning courses as they could with traditional classes. Administrators supported the idea that "face-to-face conversation" was "the best learning" (Administrator B). Another administrator said, "I personally don't believe

there's near as much education in an online class as there is sitting in a classroom"

(Administrator H). The administrators' comments illustrate their doubts about whether the teachers who are involved in the distance learning programs are actually learning what they need to serve students. Administrators also stressed the importance of connecting with instructors, something they felt didn't happen in distance learning courses. The following comment typifies their ideas about the importance of interaction:

I hope it [distance learning] never replaces the classroom situation, because I still feel that there's a big advantage of being there and having the interaction with your teacher, or in this case your professor, instead of that TV screen and, and I think that's a big part of education. (Administrator G1)

Another administrator added that universities were offering ITV or online classes "all without meeting in person;" but he felt that "a big, big portion" of education was having "personal contact with people" (Administrator A).

Interactions with other KPD teachers. Teachers mentioned a strength of the KPD program was that they could talk to other teachers who were taking the course at the same remote site as they were. Teachers had the opportunity to discuss the course material during class sessions. During the videoconferencing sessions, teachers could mute their microphones, so as not to be heard by the instructor or teachers at other remote locations, and often times they discussed their own ideas about the lecture (Teacher F2; Teacher D1; Teacher D2; Teacher F4; Teacher G5; Teacher G6). Teachers said they could ask questions without having to interrupt the lecture or look "stupid" in front of the instructor (Teacher G5). A teacher who reported that it was difficult to stop the lecture and say that she didn't understand during the videoconference courses found she could easily talk to the other teachers at her site and get information from

them (Teacher E4). Sometimes the conversations at the individual sites were so interesting participants had a difficult time wrapping up their discussions (Teachers F4). Teachers described being able to talk with their colleagues during the class sessions as a positive part of KPD and as an experience that helped them understand the material better.

Taking the courses with other teachers was also helpful because teachers worked together to complete assignments and tests. Teachers at one district would “get together and try to help each other out because everybody was just so overwhelmed” with the courses and reading (Teacher G3). Teachers said they divided the readings (Teacher G3), worked together for the midterm exams (Teacher E8; Teacher G3), and turned to each for feedback before submitting their work (Teacher D2; Teacher G5; Teacher G6). A few teachers mentioned that they continued to collaborate with their colleagues outside of the KPD program to prepare for Praxis exam (Teacher G3) or address ESOL issues in the classroom (Teacher A3).

Teachers reported that by discussing with the other teachers at their site, the course material became more relevant to their classroom practice. Teachers at one site talked about classroom situations with their ELs, some of the misunderstandings they had, and how they adjusted their classroom instruction to help ELs (Teacher E6). Other teachers compared notes and shared resources and strategies they had tried with the ELs in the classroom (Teacher E8). Teachers also indicated that it was advantageous to take classes with teachers from their district because of the “immediate collaboration” (Teacher D1). With a “network of other people taking classes at the same time,” they could get to know other teachers and discuss the district curriculum and the challenges of EL education at different levels within their district (Teacher A4). For example, a third grade teacher discussed her math lesson plans with the high school math teacher in the same school district, and she was able to see connections in what they both

were teaching and how the foundation was built for further mathematical concepts. The teacher said that through talking to each other, “We respect each other so much more as teachers” (Teacher A4). Working with other teachers from the same district was particularly beneficial in the case of one site which had four teachers who taught the same grade level within the same district but at different buildings. Teachers shared ideas for their grade level during the class sessions (Teacher F1; Teacher F2), and a teacher explained that the interactions with his colleagues became an important part of the class meeting, one that he looked forward to (Teacher F1). It seems that distance learning allowed the teachers to interact with each other in ways that are different from a traditional classroom; they could learn from their peers and colleagues at the site while also listening to the professor (Researcher memo, June 4, 2012). Interestingly these interactions were not created, developed, or even fostered by the instructors but arose naturally as the teachers came together for the KPD courses.

Interactions among teachers at various sites. The KPD technology was supposed to allow teachers at one remote site to interact with teachers at any of the other remote sites or with students on campus. Although they were in the minority, some teachers said they learned from teachers at other sites. For example, a teacher from a small school with few ELs noted that it was helpful to interact with teachers from other schools in Southwest Kansas because “what folks deal with in the bigger cities” is different and the EL population “completely different” (Teacher A1). Another teacher stated that in interacting with other schools, she gained a better understanding of the course materials. When she and the other two teachers at their site put their heads together, “it just seemed like we were all three lost at the same time [laughing]” (Teacher H3). By listening to the teachers from other districts, she could begin to make sense of the

material as the other teachers had “a lot of good ideas” and “obviously read into the chapters a lot [laughing] more than [she] did” (Teacher H3).

Most teachers reported they had few or no opportunities to interact with teachers from other sites. Teachers noted that because of the technology, it was difficult to hear teachers at other sites (Teacher I1), and even when they were able to hear what teachers from other districts said in response to questions posed by the instructor (Teacher E4; Teacher G5), there was little or no interaction beyond that (Teacher E4). A teacher stated that an overall weakness of KPD was the “lack of camaraderie”, and although he interacted with the other teachers at his remote location, he wanted to talk to other teachers to get more ideas for his classroom (Teacher B1). Teachers also reported that when the courses also had university students on campus, the communication between sites was even more difficult as the instructors geared the lectures more toward the university students (Teacher E5) and the interactions didn’t seem natural (Teacher E6). Even though the Blackboard discussion board was available to help teachers communicate with teachers from other sites, teachers reported this form of communication was stilted and forced, if it happened at all (Teacher A4; Teacher H1).

Personal connection among teachers and instructors. In the initial interviews I asked the participants to describe interactions between teachers and instructors, and the topic of “personal connections” kept emerging. Some teachers felt there was a lack of personal connection between themselves and the instructors; and instructors didn’t know them (December 30, 2011). In subsequent interviews and in the follow-up interviews I asked teachers to explore the topic of personal connections in the KPD program.

Teachers, with one exception, felt instructors did not know them. The teacher responses show variation in what “knowing them” means; some teachers said the instructors did not know

their names or faces (Teacher E4; Teacher G7), and others said the instructors did not have a good understanding of their teaching situation and challenges in Southwest Kansas (Teacher A4). Furthermore, teachers also stated that the instructors often interacted with them as a site rather than as individuals. I observed in several courses the instructor often phrased a question to a whole site, rather than to an individual. The instructor looked down the class roster, picked a name randomly, and asked that particular teacher to respond. A teacher corroborated my observation when she explained, “We were the [Town] group and we always felt like they knew the [town] group” (Teacher A4). An instructor supported the teacher’s comment when she explained that she tried to illicit participation from the teachers by asking, ““So, what about in a—in a [Town]? What do you think?”” (Instructor 3).

Instructors agreed; all of the instructors mentioned that it was difficult to get to know the teachers in Southwest Kansas. When one instructor was asked if she felt like she knew her students, she replied, “Not really. Some. Some that were more, more talkative or they would share more” (Instructor 3). She provided an example of one teacher who shared things that had happened in class; the instructor said the descriptions of these everyday things gave her an idea about the teacher. The instructor provided this example but she commented that, in general, she did not have that type of interaction with teachers. By various accounts, the instructors got to know the teachers as groups of teachers at sites but not as individual teachers.

Both teachers and instructors described varying types and levels of interaction between teachers and instructors. Teachers noted that one instructor really tried to get to know the teachers:

I had one [instructor] that I really felt like she kind of figured us—who we were because she would bring up things like maybe we had written in—in a, like a report or

something—she'd say, 'You know, you had a student. You talked about here.' You

know, so I knew she paid attention to what assignments we handed in. (Teacher A4)

The teacher did not comment about the interactions with the other instructors, but her comment suggests that the interaction with this instructor was unique. It's worth noting that the instructor mentioned was the only one who mentioned making an effort to learn about the teachers:

I always started by asking them how things were down in Southwest Kansas. How's the weather? You know, what's new in [Town]? What um—what are you guys up to? Trying to get them to talk a little bit about their days and what was going on uh in their schools.

(Instructor 1)

Many participants attributed the lack of connection between the instructors and teachers to the distance learning format of the classes. Teachers said, "Over ITV, you know, you joke and you kind of have fun with each other, but it's a little bit different than face-to-face. You still feel there is a little distance between you (Teacher A4) and "There is such a sense of being removed from everything through that screen from your teacher" (Teacher I1). An instructor who noted that it was hard to keep teachers' names and faces straight because she couldn't get a clear picture of them in the courses echoed their comments:

I think I had good rapport with the students—as good as you could hope, but you know from me being here and them just watching me on TV and the—that kind of thing, but um...It...I, I really missed the more personal connection. I think it could have had a much better impact if, if we'd all been together. (Instructor 1)

In addition to the distance learning format and technology that impeded communication, the limited connection time among the sites made personal connections even more difficult. The connection was only available for the duration of the class meetings, and the system would

automatically disconnect when the class was scheduled to end. An instructor mentioned that once the sessions were over, the teachers were gone too (Instructor 3). There was no “immediacy” with the KPD teachers; they couldn’t stay after class or come to her office to talk outside of class meeting times (Instructor 3). When asked if she felt she missed out by not knowing the teachers in the courses, the instructor sighed, paused, and replied, “Sure, yeah. I, I missed getting to know them better, but at the same time, it was a given that I wasn’t going to” (Instructor 3). Another instructor concluded, “Distance ed[ucation] as distance ed[ucation] is distant” (Instructor 2).

Even though participants didn’t get a chance to know each other well, teachers and instructors said it was important. Instructors reported that connections might help increase the instructors’ credibility as they could talk about their experiences as teachers “in the trenches” (Instructor 4), and teachers reported that knowing the instructor would make them feel a little more accountable to the program (Teacher A4). Forming personal connections also advanced learning, by lowering the affective filter so teachers were in a relaxed situation and felt comfortable with the person (Instructor 2). Teachers agreed; a high school teacher explained, “I am very much a relationship person—and I need to have face-to-face conversations to really have a connection and I mean—to solidify my learning” (Teacher D1). She concluded that the lack of connections made the KPD courses more difficult for her.

KPD stakeholders made several recommendations about how to foster relationships between teachers and instructors based on their experiences with the KPD program. An instructor said that KPD would benefit from more of a “physical presence” in which the instructors met more frequently with the teachers and district administrators (Instructor 2). Stakeholders recommended face-to-face meetings so teachers would have the opportunity to interact with instructors and ask questions (Coordinator 2). Instructors could travel to the remote

sites to deliver the courses once in a while (Administrator G1; Director 5). Teachers recommended having the same instructor for more than one semester would help bridge the distance between them and the instructor and make a personal connection (Teacher A3). Another teacher recommended “maybe a phone call once in a while saying, ‘Hey this is Dr. So-and-so. Is there anything we can do to help you?’ You know, this type of thing” (Teacher A1). The teacher concluded that she would have liked “more personal contact” because “That contact is very important” (Teacher A1). Lastly, an instructor offered several ideas for how instructors and teachers could have formed a personal connection by sharing a meal together, inviting the teachers to the university campus, or spending more time in Southwest Kansas. The instructor explained why such meetings might be important;

You know, it was already enough—cool enough, distant enough to, to have people there and see them through a monitor without having had contact with, with them, but also uh sometimes, you know, an instructor would appear on the monitor and that would be the first time, that they saw the instructor. You know what I mean? (Instructor 3)

The recommendations from participants indicate that major changes weren’t necessary to strengthen personal connections.

Role of educational center. Another theme common to all types of KPD courses was the presence of the project coordinators from the education center which were to provide instructional coaching and technology support to teachers. As reported by many participants, the educational center helped overcome some of the challenges related to the distance learning as the coordinators had close connection to the teachers, acted as a mediator, increased accountability among teachers, and helped with technology.

The educational center worked with districts and teachers in other capacities before the KPD grant and had established relationships with some teachers and administrators. They helped districts comply with ESOL services and reporting, provided educational services and workshops to districts, and sought input from districts when planning their workshops and trainings. Because of the educational center's involvement with the districts, the coordinators were well-known. A coordinator explained, "I've been out here so many years, there were only a few people [in KPD] that I didn't already know or have some connection to, so you know, they knew me as the ITV lady" (Coordinator 1). An instructor stated that the project coordinators "have been around a really long time. I think that they are well-respected in the community. I think that teachers know them really well and trust them" (Instructor 1). The project coordinators had ties to the community and were integrated in the schools in ways that instructors weren't.

Teachers reported that having the coordinators nearby helped them through their KPD experience. One participant said; "It was just having a person that you could talk to, having somebody elbow to elbow or somebody that you were comfortable or familiar with" (Teacher I1). A teacher who finished all but one course said she stayed in the KPD program as long as she did because of her relationship with the coordinator; "It was a sense of—I love [coordinator]. I mean, I do. I love [her]—you know, I don't want to let them down" (Teacher E7). Teachers also mentioned that members of the educational center were in their classrooms, did observations, brought ESOL resources relevant to their subjects, and attended KPD class sessions. A teacher who described a "little bit of distance" between the teachers and instructors commented that the coordinator tried very hard to get to know her and know what was going on in her classroom (Teacher A4). Teachers also reported that the coordinators helped keep them accountable by keeping them on track (Teacher G7), supporting them in the courses (Teacher I1), and reminding

them to take the Praxis exam to become endorsed (Teacher D2). Teachers described being accountable to the coordinators because they had established close and ongoing communication. Directors described the coordinators as “boots on the ground, working with the teachers, answering their questions, making sure the technology worked at each school” (Director 6). Coordinators also set up the classes by making the connections between the various sites, familiarized teachers with the videoconferencing, and helped teachers with the course enrollment process, assisted teachers navigate the Blackboard site (Coordinator 1) and completed other “managerial, administrative kinds of things” (Instructor 2). Teachers reported the coordinators helped with anything from getting the reading materials printed for them (Teacher I1) to downloading materials, submitting assignments electronically, or helping with lost connections during class.

In addition, many participants talked about the role of the educational center in helping to facilitate communication between the teachers and instructors. Teachers stated that when they had questions they often communicated with the project coordinators in Southwest Kansas. They emailed them back and forth to ask about KPD questions (Teacher G7). A teacher explained that in the beginning of her experience with KPD, she didn’t understand how the KPD program worked, so she turned to the coordinators. She explained, “I kind of felt like they were the ones that set the program on, on its feet for me. And um, they, they played a major role, because they, you know—anything communicated, it came through them.” The teacher concluded, “They were the voice close by that dealt with the students when the professors couldn’t be” (Teacher F4).

Instructors and directors also looked to the educational center as mediators. An instructor reported that because of their community ties and their connections to teachers, the coordinators were an ideal choice to be liaisons:

They knew the lay of the land. They knew the culture. They could—if we said something or had any problems or complaints, we knew that the way they would pass it on would be palatable for the people that they were working with and vice versa. Um, so they were good diplomats. They were both really good people for that role. (Instructor 1)

The coordinators tried to “enhance the communication” between the stakeholders and said that they were really on the sides of both the teachers and instructors (Coordinator 1). Participants agreed that the educational center played a role in helping with technology and acting as a mediator among the teachers, instructors, and KPD staff. Teachers highlighted how their ongoing interactions with the project coordinators allowed for close connections and accountability, aspects that were not present in interactions with the university instructors. The proximity of the educational center along with their strong community ties helped bridge some of the distance in the program.

Content of Courses

Besides the delivery of the courses, participants also shared their perspectives on the content of the courses. Teachers reported that techniques and skills were needed to work with ELs, and this emphasis carried over into what they expected from the KPD courses. These perspectives were in conflict in the KPD courses, as teachers mainly wanted information they could apply to their classrooms and instructors insisted that both theory and practice were crucial for preparing teachers to work with ELs.

Teachers’ views. Teachers reported their experiences with KPD did not meet their expectations: they found there to be a focus on theory over practice, they were unassisted in going from theory to practice, and the information didn’t apply to their teaching or to the ELs in their classrooms.

Teacher expectations. Some teachers didn't know what to expect from the courses, and didn't have a good understanding of ESOL or what it meant to be an ESOL-endorsed teacher when they began the program. Some teachers described having “no clue” as to what to expect from the courses (Teacher E4; Teacher E8; Teacher H1) and others expected to learn Spanish (Teacher A3; Teacher C1; Teacher E6; Teacher G7). The comments of one teacher typify their views:

I thought maybe we were going to learn how to speak Spanish or, you know, stuff. You know, I didn't know. I really didn't know what I was getting into. I mean, uh, ESL, you know is that like—does that mean I have to learn a second language? Or do I have to be teaching these kids English in my classroom when I'm a phys[ical] ed[ucation] teacher. I, I, I didn't know. I didn't know what to expect. I really didn't. (Teacher C1)

It's likely that teachers were surprised about the content of the courses, because they didn't fully understand what they were signing up to do.

Teachers expected KPD to learn how to teach ELs (Teacher G3) and to gain the strategies and skills to meet their needs (Teacher H3). One high school teachers commented, “I just thought I was going to learn how—teaching techniques for how to better present material, I guess” (Teacher E1), and another explained that teachers wanted “somebody to hand you an answer and say this is how you teach ESL kids. This works” (Teacher G3). Many teachers had the expectation that the KPD courses would directly help them in their classrooms, and they didn't expect to learn theory, language development, and linguistics.

Teachers' initial expectations of the course did not match up with their experiences in the courses. Essentially, even though the KPD courses included some techniques and ideas that teachers could use in the classroom, teachers reported there was too much focus on theory and

research. Teachers lamented that the courses were so theoretical, the “opposite of practical,” (Teacher E8) and did not focus on how the teachers could apply the information in their classes.

The comment from a teacher highlights the mismatch:

I thought we would have more hands on, applicable things in there. In other words—how to apply what we’ve learned in an actual setting with ESL students. What happens if they ask you this or what happens if they do this? Or you know—just applicable stuff. I wasn’t expecting so much, uh—theory and research and you know—my thing is like, okay, how does all this apply? (Teacher E2)

As evidenced by the comments, teacher expectations were not met by the courses; teachers found some courses more theoretical than others, struggled to apply the information from the courses without assistance, and reported the information presented in class wasn’t relevant to their subject or ELs.

Focus on theory. Teachers found the KPD program to be too theoretical, and this criticism stemmed largely from the second language acquisition (SLA) and linguistics courses. The SLA is a course that “provides a comprehensive survey of the theory and research base of second language acquisition” with attention to how the historical theory base shapes current trends in linguistics and psychology (Course purpose from syllabus, Spring 2008; Fall 2011). Teachers found this “comprehensive survey” abstract and unrelated to their teaching. To illustrate, many teachers echoed the comments of a middle school teacher who said, “I don’t really care too much about all the theories” (Teacher B2). She explained she didn’t want to discuss which theories work and which ones don’t; she said, “Just tell me which ones work” (Teacher B2). Teachers reported the “meat and potatoes” of the course should be how they could help the ELs in their classrooms, and not all the theory of SLA (Teacher C1). The linguistics

course, which offered teachers “the basic foundations for language analysis” (Course description from syllabus, Summer 2010), was also considered to be irrelevant to teachers’ instructional practice. An elementary school teacher, who described the linguistics course as “very frustrating” explained that she “didn’t care about learning about the languages and where the tongue hits” that were part of the course (Teacher G6).

Generally, the methods and assessments courses were deemed to be the most practical and relevant courses. To illustrate, a teacher who said the assessments course “was more geared towards what [he] was actually doing in class” reported it to be more beneficial than the classes in which they just read a book and talked about the different aspects of ESOL (Teacher E5). The teacher described writing an assessment, reflecting on it, revising it based on feedback, and administering it to his students for the final project. Teachers wanted to learn something they could do with their students in the classroom. Although few teachers provided examples of how information in the other courses were relevant to their classrooms (Teacher A4; Teacher D2), the “hands-on” nature of the methods and assessments course were favored by teachers and they reported them to be the most helpful.

Teachers’ perceptions of the course may have been influenced by the sequence of the courses as most teachers began with the SLA course and some teachers did not continue beyond the first course which introduced the theory and research base. To illustrate, 47 KPD teachers took the SLA course (five received incompletes or failing grades), and just 35 took the methods course (eight received incompletes or failing grades). A teacher’s expected “to get into the meat of actually teaching,” but was surprised that so much theory was included in her first class, the SLA course. She noted that they began to talk about “modifying lessons to meet ESL needs” in the last course she took and the instructor began to pull the theory and practice together with real

life examples or ideas for what the teachers could do in their own classrooms (Teacher A4). Other teachers noted that the SLA was “just kind of over [their] head[s]” and they didn’t understand how they would use the information in the classroom (Teacher E5). The initial class was deemed too theoretical, and only when teachers took the methods course did they begin to see how to put the information into practice.

Both participants and instructors noted that perhaps the program shouldn’t begin with the SLA course, but rather introduce the topic of ESOL to the teachers through a course that they could relate to more, such as the methods course (Teacher E3; Instructor 1). By having a more directly applicable course in the beginning, the teachers’ buy-in would increase over time (Researcher memo, September 5, 2012). Another possibility would be to integrate the content from the courses, so that teachers could learn a bit about theory, and then, also learn the implications of that theory to practice (Teacher B1; Teacher I2; Instructor 1). An integrated approach might support teachers to see how the theory can inform decisions about practice.

Although teachers were generally more positive about the methods courses than they were with the other courses, a few teachers offered exceptional cases. First, a teacher who was a non-native English speaker reported the linguistics course was “interesting and applicable.” The teacher reasoned that having learned two languages in addition to her native language helped her understand the material and make connections between the linguistics course and her classroom (Teacher E2). A second teacher described the SLA class as “dull learning,” but she acknowledged the information in the course was background information teachers needed to know (Teacher E3). Two other teachers who reported finding value in the theoretical side of the KPD courses came from the same district, and notably, both of them completed the KPD program. A math teacher described the SLA course as the most interesting of the courses she

took with KPD; learning the process of language, the different views of researchers, and the research behind ESOL hooked her into the program and ESOL education in general. Throughout the interview, the teacher referred back to information she learned from this class and provided examples of how the knowledge informed classroom decisions (Teacher D1). The other teacher, a high school language arts teacher, said the SLA course was important for understanding the stages of language development and knowing how to adjust instruction according to the students' progress. Throughout the interview, the teacher talked about the importance of not only valuing but also supporting the students' native language in the classroom, making decisions about student grouping based on their language proficiencies, and the difference between BICS and CALP. The teacher said the SLA class and the theory helped her understand how she could help a student learn language in her classroom (Teacher D2). These teachers stated they understood the connection between the more theoretical courses and their classrooms, but the teachers were exceptions.

From theory to practice unassisted. KPD stakeholders also noted that teachers had to make the link between theory to practice largely on their own without much instructional coaching or mentoring. As mentioned earlier, the KPD program design called for the coordinators to act as instructional coaches who would attend the courses and follow-up with the teacher so they could connect what they were learning in the courses with what they were doing in their own classrooms (Director 5); however, teachers said coordinators were not really serving as instructional coaches (Teacher E4). Although the instructional coaching was supposed help teachers connect the theory and practice, it happened rarely and only at the end of the teachers' experiences with KPD, leaving the teachers to make the connections mostly on their own. An

instructor said the delivery model was particularly difficult for bringing about change in teachers' practices and for creating teacher buy-in:

For professional development to be effective for teachers and to get their buy-in, they really have to see its immediate application. And I just didn't know how to do that in this particular delivery model. I mean I couldn't be there. I couldn't go to the schools and coach them. (Instructor 1)

Many teachers placed the responsibility of making the connection between theory and practice on the instructors. Most teachers just wanted to get to the "meat" of ESOL and be told what to do in their classrooms to meet the needs of ELs (Teacher C1). A teacher said, "I thought maybe they would hand us a program that says, 'This is what you do'" (Teacher A1). She later realized that it was just like any other education program, where the ideas are presented and the teachers had to take them and run, learning how to apply it to their classrooms on their own. The number of teachers who came to this perspective and acknowledged their own role in making the information apply were few (Teacher B1; Teacher D1; Teacher D2). These teachers reported that it was the teachers' responsibility to apply the information, reflect on the material, and ask themselves if they were implementing the ideas in the classroom.

Courses Not Designed for Teachers. Teachers also reported that the content of the courses was not well-aligned with what they needed as teachers. They thought the content would be relevant and important information for other types of students, including English majors, ESOL specialists, and speech pathologists, but it wasn't relevant to their own teaching situations. For example, a history teacher explained that while in the KPD courses, he had the impression that the KPD in-service teachers were "just sitting in and listening to a classroom of ESL majors" (Teacher E6). Another teacher said the topics related to language shifts and language loss were

not relevant to her, and she didn't see how diagramming sentences or "taking apart words" would benefit her as a first grade teacher (Teacher G5). She explained, "I'm not an English major. I have no desire to be an English major" (Teacher G5). The teacher acknowledged that some of the things that directly related to teaching were beneficial, but she felt so much of it was for someone pursuing a doctorate (Teacher G5). Information presented in the courses was beyond what they teachers felt they needed to know for helping ELs.

Besides not having the content meeting the teachers' needs, teachers also reported the KPD courses were not at the "level of a teacher," meaning there was too much of a gap between their background knowledge and the new information presented in the courses. Teachers reported instructors didn't take into consideration that they might not have a background in ESOL or language, and assumed they had some previous experience with it. For example, after taking four KPD courses, a high school history teacher said, "I don't want to say that either one of the professors were talking over our heads, but there was a lot of things that they kind of threw out, kind of as common knowledge" (Teacher E6). Without the background and ongoing instructional coaching, the teacher didn't see the connections between the readings and his classroom and he reported the classes did not benefit him or his students. Furthermore, teachers weren't familiar with the language and vocabulary used in the courses (Teacher A4), and some reported that instructors talked over their heads by using words they didn't know (Teacher E10).

Though some teachers reported that the instructors and material were not at "a teacher's level," others got the impression that the instructors thought they were "a bunch of idiots" (Teacher E1, interview 2). Instructors' body language and tone of voice gave teachers the impression that they were viewed as "bunch of hicks" and life in Western Kansas was simple and antiquated (Teacher E1; Teacher E2). Teachers also reported they felt instructors looked down

on them, laughed at them, or even made fun of them (Teacher E2). Furthermore, teachers' perceptions of instructors impacted their willingness to participate in the class sessions.

EL Population. Several teachers mentioned that the information presented in the KPD courses was difficult to apply to their teaching situations simply because they did not have the ESOL population at their schools or in their particular classrooms. For example, a high school math teacher who taught the upper math levels at a district with an ESOL population of less than 20 percent reported she had to “make up stuff” or administer assessments to ELs borrowed from a colleague’s class just to turn in assignments for the course. The teacher also claimed she didn’t need to make adjustments to her class to reach her EL students because there were so few of them and they did pretty well in her class (Teacher E7). Another teacher reported the KPD information wasn’t relevant to her because they didn’t have ELs in the school; however, 68% of the student population was identified EL. The comments from this teacher help to illustrate that teachers may have found the information in the KPD courses difficult to apply in their classroom, partly because they didn’t see a need for the EL in their classrooms to have support. In general, many teachers had a narrow concept of who ELs were and only identified the very lowest of the students, perhaps those who struggle to understand directions or respond in English.

Subject Area. Teachers reported the material presented in the KPD courses were not relevant to them because of the particular content area they taught. Teachers of various subject areas had this concern, but it was most common among math teachers. Of the six math teachers interviewed only two saw the relevance of the KPD courses to their classrooms (Teacher A3; Teacher D1). The other teachers considered math to be a universal language, didn’t have time to be language teachers, and were concerned about teaching math content first (Researcher memo,

March 15, 2012). The fact that the teachers said that ESOL was not relevant to their subject suggests that the KPD endorsement coursework did not make it apparent that a focus on language could be infused into any subject. It also suggests that teachers view ESOL only as language support; they don't take into consideration the broader spectrum of ESOL education which includes ideas about how to interact with students, learn about their culture and background, and interact with parents. The teachers see ESOL in a very narrow way, with only a focus on language and vocabulary (Researcher memo, December 20, 2011).

In summary, teachers provided several reasons the KPD courses were not applicable to their classroom settings: courses presented theory that did not seem to connect to the classroom; teachers were largely unassisted in making the connections between theory and practice; the courses were not designed for teachers; the few ELs in their classrooms did not warrant changes to their instruction; and the courses were not relevant to the particular subject areas. The teachers' descriptions of the courses and the problem of applying the information is not just a simple matter of wanting more applicable things, but rather teachers needing to know how what they were learning about theory and research could inform their practices. As discussed, perhaps teachers didn't see how the information could be applied because the material was not presented in an integrated way; rather, the material for one course was isolated from the content of another course, with little discussion of how they connected.

Instructors' views. The balance of theory and practice was also a concern for KPD instructors. In contrast to teachers' perspectives, instructors believed both theory and practice were crucial for preparing teachers to work with ELs. The instructors reported the theory should inform practice, but at the same time, they acknowledged that KPD had several challenges that made it difficult to demonstrate the connection between the two.

Theory and practice. Instructors reported that theory, research, and linguistics were important to the PD of teachers in the area of ESOL, as knowledge of these areas could inform teachers' decisions in the classroom.

There's a difference between a technique and a bag of tricks and an actual skill and then the knowledge behind those skills. The skill of differentiation, for example, how do you break down a lesson and help all students be successful in that lesson regardless of their language ability. I mean I wouldn't even have an easy time doing that, to be honest. It's not—it's not a bag of tricks; it's a skill. And, and the only way you have that skill is through that kind of theoretical knowledge of, of what it means to be in an interlanguage zone, what interlanguage is, how, how you can scaffold that. (Instructor 1)

According to the instructor, PD is more than just receiving information about techniques; teachers have to change their thinking. Noting the long-standing divide between theory and practice, the instructor suggested that PD opportunities should really be about both theory and action or "praxis," which is when teachers make decisions that are "purposeful" (Instructor 1). According to the instructor, having practical applications or a "bag of tricks" to use in the classroom was important but so was understanding the purpose of using those particular set of techniques (Instructor 1).

Another instructor provided a specific example of how theory could inform classroom practice. He explained that when teachers know about the critical period hypothesis and that young children aren't better equipped to learn a second language it "reinforce[s] the notion that just because you teach younger students, you should still be patient, uh you know, with the process. It's going to take a long time for, for them to achieve cognitive academic language

proficiency” (Instructor 2). Through this example, the instructor illustrated how a theory presented in the course could have a practical application in the classroom.

Another instructor spoke to the value of the theoretical aspects of the KPD courses by pointing out that each course in the TESOL sequence had a particular focus that was relevant to ESOL. The theory in the SLA course helped teachers understand how a student acquires a language, the intercultural awareness class addressed teachers’ attitudes and helped them develop empathy, and the methods course provided ideas about what changes could be made to their instruction (Instructor 4). According to the instructor, theory was a piece of the puzzle; to make informed decisions in the classroom, teachers needed to know how the theory could shape their daily practice.

Instructors and teachers differed in their views of the applied nature of the courses. Teachers reported the KPD courses were “too theoretical,” but instructors said the information in the courses could be applied and that they even took extra measures to make links between the course and the classroom. For example, an instructor who taught the methods course said her course was where they practiced the method, applied the theories, and worked on techniques that were relevant to a particular content area (Instructor 3). The instructor provided evidence of the applied nature of her courses only when talking about the methods course; she didn’t talk about how information from linguistics course could be applied in the classroom. In addition, the instructor who taught SLA said when he first began teaching the course for the department, “it was strictly what it was supposed to be—like a theory and research course,” and they talked about how teachers should teach “in a very, very sort of vague general way” (Instructor 2). The instructor said that during KPD, he changed the courses to include a more applied approach which focused more on practice than theory, “‘cause that’s what teachers want[ed]” (Instructor

2). The instructor said he provided more concrete examples, practiced and discussed error analysis, and tried to encourage teachers to interact with each other so they could later implement the concepts in their own classrooms (Instructor 2). From the instructors' viewpoint, the courses were practical and provided information teachers could use in their classrooms. At the same time, instructors recognized the struggle to find a balance between theory and practice. They were aware that teachers prioritized application over theory. An instructor who described in-service teachers as "very demanding" explained, "They want things to be immediately applicable. They have no use for theory" (Instructor 1). While instructors reported the practice was important, they felt teachers needed theory to support the application. The mismatch between what teachers and instructors felt was important created a "metaphorical" distance that was difficult to overcome.

Challenges. Even though instructors believed their courses were applied, they also acknowledged several challenges to making the courses relevant to the teachers. Instructors reported exposure to the SLA theory was crucial for in-service teachers, but they acknowledged the depth of the information presented in the KPD courses might not be necessary. One instructor explained that teachers in the early elementary school years probably didn't have to modify a lot in their classrooms. The instructor acknowledged that many best practices for ELs are really best practices for many students (Instructor 1). However, the instructor pointed out that teachers at the upper grades of elementary schools and beyond "can rely less on their instincts and need more information to help them make better decisions in the classroom" (Instructor 1); these teachers would need more theory to help guide their instruction. The instructor who was not a TESOL faculty member stated that all teachers needed "a minimal knowledge base of the vocabulary and theory behind ESL" (Instructor 4), but math teachers could probably do with much less theory

than a language arts teacher. It seems that instructors valued the place of theory in educating teachers to work with ELs but also recognized the teachers have different needs.

Instructors reported it was difficult to focus on the applied nature of TESOL when the teachers and students in their classes were so diverse. Not only were the instructors teaching students on campus who were pre-service students, graduate students, and international students, but they also had in-service from many different grade levels and content areas. In-service teachers wanted to know about K-12 education in Kansas, international students were seeking training as teachers of foreign languages, and others wanted to know about TESOL as it related to universities, migration, refugee, and resettlement service (Instructor 2; Instructor 3).

Instructors recognized the challenges of providing relevant information to all groups in the courses. An instructor said that international students had to listen to him “babble on” about K-12 education when it didn’t pertain to them, and if he spent too much time talking about TESOL in higher education, in-service teachers complained. The instructor explained how he managed the needs of the two groups, “Um, I, you know, basically took, you know, 100% of what I normally do and geared it toward K-12, which I normally don’t do” (Instructor 3). He added that it left out those interested in higher education and they were to just figure out on their own how the information applied to their context. He concluded that he was “flat-out neglecting” other students in the course to address the concerns of the in-service teachers. Another instructor agreed that the courses at the university were largely designed for those teaching ELs in the United States. Even though there was a “common core” of information that could be applied to all TESOL fields, there were some topics related to K-12 education that did not apply to other contexts (Instructor 3).

Instructors also reported it was difficult to make the information apply to all in-service teachers as they came from many different grade levels and content areas. To illustrate, the KPD teachers included those who taught preschool, grades 1 through 4, physical education, music, computers, high school math, science, social studies, and English. Instructors found it difficult to provide concrete examples of how to apply the information for each of these grades and content areas. Furthermore, they perceived it to be “naïve” of the teachers to expect concrete ideas about how the information could be applied given the teachers were in different schools, at different grade levels, and also with varying numbers of ELs at various stages in the process of language acquisition. The instructor stated there was no one strategy or technique that could be used by all teachers in these various teaching settings (Instructor 1). Another instructor agreed; it was difficult to make the content of the KPD courses applicable for every grade level and subject area. She reasoned that because it was impossible to provide an example for every setting, teachers needed “to learn how to extrapolate what we’re doing in class or what they do for the assignment to what they do every day” (Instructor 3). The comments of these two instructors indicate the responsibility for making the material applicable to the classroom was placed largely with the classroom teacher.

Besides the challenges of presenting the course material to a diverse group of students and teachers, instructors also noted the instructional coaching needed to make the material applicable wasn’t in place. The 400 miles between the university and the school districts rendered coaching by the instructors nearly impossible, and, in fact, only one of the instructors made a trip to Southwest Kansas to observe teachers in their classrooms for the purpose of evaluating and providing feedback. This instructor was the only one who even brought up the value of coaching in a PD opportunity and the lack of it within KPD. Instructional coaching was

delegated to the coordinators in Southwest Kansas, and instructors doubted whether the coaching was effective. For example, one instructor explained, “I don’t know that they were doing the kind of instructional coaching that I would have done, that really aligned with my philosophy of teaching and the approach [described in class]” (Instructor 1). Furthermore many teachers were not observed in their classrooms at all or were only observed as part of their final practicum course. In addition, the project coordinators may not have had the experience and knowledge of TESOL that the instructor thought was necessary for someone in their positions. The instructor viewed the lack of quality instructional support as problematic for KPD as teachers were left to figure out on their own how the material applied to their classrooms. There was a “disconnect” because the instructors didn’t see how teachers were putting into practice what they talked about in the courses. An instructor explained:

We didn’t know if the teachers’ difficulties in applying what we talked about were just because of their habitualized practice, and therefore, sort of their unwillingness to adjust to incorporate these things, or if it was because what we were talking about was just too abstract and seemingly irrelevant and unresponsive to their teaching. (Instructor 1)

As evidenced by comments from both teachers and instructors, the instructional support with KPD was not ongoing and continuous and left teachers on their own to grapple with how the theory connected to their practice. The lack of modeling contributed to a further division of theory and practice for the teachers.

Summary of KPD Courses

Participants reported the distance learning format created a situation where it was difficult for teachers and instructors to communicate effectively. Even though teachers benefitted from taking the courses with their district colleagues, they had few opportunities to interact with

teachers from other districts. In addition, instructors and teachers had differing perspectives about the role and balance of theory and practice in the KPD courses.

Based on their experiences with KPD, stakeholders made several recommendations for university PD programs. The top recommendation from teachers was that instructors “make things a little more relevant” (Teacher E8) by focusing on the “meat and potatoes” of ESOL education (Teacher G3). Teachers wanted practical, hands-on activities they could use in the classroom (Teacher B2; Teacher E6). A teacher suggested that when the instructors are teaching the courses they need to consider if it’s going to be useful in the classroom (Teachers G7).

Instructors agreed that changes in the PD model were needed to make the connection between theory and practice stronger, and to make information more applicable to their teaching settings. An instructor commented:

We have a certain obligation to change the way we do things if, if this is going to be, um, the model of the future for the way we offer professional development to teachers to, um, better improve the quality of education for English language learners. Then we have to change the way we do it. And it’s not about watering and dumbing things down. It’s about figuring out how, like I said, to make the theory transparent, to understand the teachers contexts better, uh, to spend more time in their schools, to um, to be constructivist. (Instructor 1)

Stakeholders also mentioned that an integrated approach might help teachers learn more about the theory while also learning the implications of the theory on their practice. Both teachers and instructors reported that the compartmentalized nature of the courses made it difficult to connect theory and practice; an integrated approach would allow teacher to learn some of the background of TESOL while also learning ways to put the ideas into practice.

Stakeholders from various groups also recommended having different tracks for in-service teachers, pre-service teachers, and graduate students, so that their coursework could be tailored to their specific needs. They suggested that there might be a track for teachers like themselves and then another track for students who want to become ESOL specialists or academics. Participants noted that in-service had different goals and different needs than international students, pre-service teachers, and graduate students (Administrator E2; Instructor 1; Instructor 2; Teacher G5). The perspectives of the KPD participants and their recommendations should be considered in designing other PD opportunities.

Concepts of Success

Stakeholders had different ways of understanding the effectiveness or success of the KPD program. As part of the interview protocol, I reported the number of in-service teachers who had been part of KPD and also those who completed the program, and asked participants to respond. During the interviews, concepts of success emerged as teachers described what they learned about ESOL, or how they made use of some of the KPD information in their classrooms. In follow-up interviews, I asked participants to explore the various definitions of effectiveness. The concepts of success presented here emerged from these interviews and discussions. There were several ways participants defined the success of the KPD program: the numbers of teachers who completed the program; the university and district partnership; the evaluation team's initial findings; the changes in teaching; and the unintended consequences of the KPD program.

Numbers

A common way to view the success of the program was by looking at the numbers of teachers who enrolled and completed the program. The initial grant proposal (2007) anticipated that at the end of the grant period, 50 in-service teachers in Southwest Kansas would have

successfully completed each course. However, the numbers for KPD were lower; 53 teachers were involved in KPD; this count included all teachers, four who were admitted to KPD but did not enroll in any courses, 37 who took at least one class but did not finish, and 12 teachers who successfully completed all the coursework and became endorsed. In interviews, I told participants the numbers of in-service teachers who had been involved with the program and told them how many completed the program. I asked, “What do you think of those numbers?” Participants’ responses provide a glimpse into how they view the success of the program.

Evaluation team members noted, “The numbers aren’t really looking great” (Evaluation 3); a member explained that the target number of teachers recruited and endorsed was “nowhere being met” (Evaluation 3). Another team member added, “In some ways it’s not a fair question to ask whether the project has worked, because the world changed dramatically” (Evaluation 2). He said:

You can now be certified without taking these five courses at [Wheat University], you can just take a test, so, so, I don’t know how they would get any students frankly at all in the program. So if, if I now expect them to have zero people coming through and they’re having more than zero, then that sounds like a successful project to me. (Evaluation 3)

Teachers and administrators reported that the numbers were much lower than expected. Many said they were surprised that more teachers did not complete the program, considering that the courses were paid for by the grant and there was such a need for districts to have teachers who were prepared to work with ELs. Participants also said the number of completers suggested the KPD grant was a failure.

Many participants also began to dissect some of the reasons the completion rate was low; the courses weren’t relevant; it was too time-consuming; the Praxis-only route became an option;

and teachers had many other professional and personal responsibilities. Other stakeholders talked about health issues (Coordinator 2), bad timing (Teacher A2), scheduling (ESOL F), other life events (Teacher E7). Some participants didn't view the numbers negatively as they understood the many reasons influenced teachers' decisions to drop out (Teacher E1), and they recognized that teachers could have finished somewhere else or moved (Teacher I1). The teachers offered the explanation that "life happens" and the numbers didn't seem so surprising. Instructors said they had no idea about the success of the program, they had not seen any information about who had completed the program, and they had not seen data from the directors or the evaluation team about the program's progress in accomplishing the goals set out in the grant proposal.

Some of the directors were aware of the numbers; others weren't. With six directors in the course of the grant, it is not surprising that some directors, especially those who were involved in the first years, did know how many completers there were. Only one program director mentioned a reason other than the change in the endorsement process as a possible reason teachers did not complete the KPD courses (Director 4). Of course, directors had a vested interest in making the grant look good despite the story told by the numbers, and this became apparent in their responses to the questions. For example, I was advised by one director that I should focus on other outcomes of the grant, rather than just tell about the numbers of completers, and she even recommended a title for the study, "Don't Just Look at the Numbers" (Director 1).

The number of teachers who completed the program provided some information about the success of the program, but as suggested by a program director, the numbers don't tell the whole story. Through the initial interviews, I learned that completion rate is just one way to understand the success of the program, so in subsequent interviews and follow-up interviews I

asked participants how they would define the success of the program or measure the program's effectiveness. Teachers described the success of the program by describing the changes in their teaching and other participants pointed out the unintended consequences of KPD.

Partnerships

One way to view the effectiveness of the program was to examine the partnerships created between Wheat University and the school districts. From my initial experiences in the field I had conceptualized KPD as a partnership where the districts, universities, teachers, and others collaborated to define and accomplish mutual goals. However, few participants described the program as a partnership, and when asked to describe KPD using a metaphor, participants illustrated the disconnect in the "partnership." Participants described the relationship between stakeholders as a business relationship (Instructor 1), "overlapping neighborhoods" where there is infrequent contact and often contentious relationships (director 6), a "really messed up family" (Teacher D2), and an "empty set" in math with no collaboration between the district and the university (Teacher E1). A director who described KPD as "four separate spheres spinning independently" explained the gaps in the relationships; "[The educational center] is doing this. We're doing this over here. The teachers are doing this. And the districts are doing this and we're all spinning on our own and then occasionally [clap], they might like collide [laughing], but it's more of a collision [clap] than it is a cooperative effort" (Director 1). I asked her what the force is that causes the collision, and she responded, "When they have to contact each other for something, like, 'We need your 70,000 dollars [for the contract for the education center].' 'Okay, here it is. But we really don't know what you've done for that or...' 'Okay, we need to talk to your teachers, district.' 'Okay, here they are'. [clap]" (Director 1). The comments illustrate the distance in the relationships between the key players of the grant. The teachers, district

administrators, university instructors, directors, and coordinators were focused on their own activities in the grant but did not interact much.

Another way to examine the success of the KPD “partnership” is by exploring the relationships of stakeholders within the university setting. With the high rate of turnover among program directors, instructors were called on to help with the management of the program which took time and attention from other priorities. With each new director, the evaluation team members had to re-explain their role, describe their dynamic research plan, and defend their efforts. Directors questioned whether instructors were vested in the program (Director 5) and reported that instructors liked the money associated with grants, but they “they just have other priorities at a research university” (Director 2). Furthermore, with the introduction of an alternative way to become endorsed, the KPD numbers dropped, leaving the evaluation team with little data to produce meaningful research. While it’s expected that any partnerships would have challenges, stakeholders described these tensions as ones that could not be reconciled.

Another way to understand the concept of success related to “partnerships” is to explore the teachers’ experiences situated in their school districts. As reported by many stakeholders of different groups, districts pushed for their teachers to be ESOL endorsed. According to KPD documents and the application, when districts were first contacted about KPD they were told that a grant proposal would be more likely to succeed if it showed “true collaboration among all its partners.” The program directors expected that ESOL coordinators would “have a facilitation and mentoring role” within the districts (Letter to potential participating districts, February, 2007). However, districts displayed various levels of support of the teachers once they were enrolled in the KPD program. Of the eight administrators, only one, an administrator new to the district, did not know anything about KPD (Administrator E1).

Administrator and teacher descriptions of district support ranged from lots of support to very little, in some cases, none at all. Districts that provided lots of support worked closely with the project coordinators and the directors to set up meetings with KPD staff, provided technology support, offered space for collaboration, communicated information to the teachers, offered one-on-one support to see if they needed anything, and offered study sessions to prepare teachers for the exam (ESOL F; Teacher A2; Administrator A). Comments from a teacher in a supportive district said that if she had questions or problems, she could talk to the ESOL coordinator, and the school staff and principal encouraged her to leave school early on nights that she had KPD class (Teacher F4). Another district that was described as particularly supportive got books for the teachers, provided them transportation when they were driving to another town to take the classes, and were allowed to leave school early to get to class (Teacher A1; Teacher A2). The administrator also mentioned he provided a facility for the courses, and later, acquired the technology at the school to encourage a few more to take the courses without having to travel (Administrator A). In explaining why the administrator provided support to the teacher, the administrator said that “one hand washes the other,” and noted the teachers and district benefitted from the teachers taking the classes.

Districts also showed support of their KPD teachers by “checking-in” with teachers or providing verbal encouragement. An administrator who knew teachers were overwhelmed with the coursework encouraged KPD teachers to talk to other teachers who had also been through the endorsement process and he talked to them about the KPD program (Administrator C). A building principal who came to class meetings a few times and joked around about teachers going to class on their one free night (Teacher E7). The support demonstrated to the teacher that the administrators knew the teachers were in the program and even understood some of the

challenges of fitting it into their schedules. Several teachers reported that one way the districts showed their support by understanding when they needed to leave the program. A teacher who was trying to balance KPD with his teaching and coaching responsibilities said that besides having the district buy the textbooks for the course, the administrators also understood that he was trying to juggle a lot and allowed him to take the Praxis route to endorsement (Teacher G3). In another district, the support provided was described in a very narrow way, but it was highly valued by teachers. Teachers reported their district showed their support by “going to bat for them” when they found the courses to require too much reading. The superintendent in the district reported to the project coordinators that the courses were too time-consuming and their teachers were going to pull out if changes were not made (Administrator G1; Instructor 1; Teacher G5; Teacher G6; Teacher G3). Teachers framed the superintendent’s intervention as positive; he was helping to relay the teachers’ concerns to the instructors.

Some teachers said that their districts did not provide any support to them as they took the courses. A few teachers reported that the support wasn’t necessary, but other teachers framed the lack of support as problematic. For example, when I asked a teacher to characterize the support she received from the district, she said, “None. Zero Zilch [chuckled]” (Teacher E1). The teacher didn’t know what the district could have done to show support and said that she didn’t know even what she expected from the district. She said, “I don’t know that our, our district ever had any part to do with it except for that they said, “Get in this program and get certified” (Teacher E1). Several teachers reported the only support they received was getting enrolled in the courses, but once they were in, the districts did little to support them. A teacher who was generally positive about the KPD experience and completed the coursework said that the district support was “zero.” She explained the district started her on the program, but that was about it;

“My disappointment lies with the district...I don’t feel like they have encouraged um people to come into the program in the right way, and I don’t feel like their follow-through once you’re in the program is very well [*sic*]” (Teacher D2). The teacher also described KPD as a “really messed up family” with the district being the “bad step-child” who “doesn’t follow through and doesn’t do what they are supposed to do” (Teacher D2). In the view of the teacher, the district could have done so much more to support the program and the teachers involved in it. Though the ESOL coordinator in this district reported they were very supportive of the teachers pursuing the endorsement, another teacher said she only received an email every semester reminding her to register for the courses (Teacher D1).

Instructors commented on the role districts played in bringing teachers to KPD and providing support to them throughout the program. Instructors connected the district pressure to some of the teachers’ motivation and lack of quality participation in the courses. For example, an instructor described three categories of teachers; those “genuinely interested” in ESOL, those pressured into the courses but willing to see if the program had anything useful to offer, and “reluctant learners” who showed resistance to the classes (Instructor 2). The instructor characterized the majority of the teachers as “forced consumers” who were going through the motions of taking the courses because their districts were getting money for them being there. Furthermore, the instructor said because the teachers’ investment in the courses was minimal—meaning that their tuition and books were covered—they perceived there to be little benefit to their teaching. The instructor explained, “Since their investment was zero, they probably also thought that what they got out of it was zero. It wouldn’t surprise me. You get out of it what you put into it. That old saying” (Instructor 2). With the district pressure and all of the various

support offered to teachers by the KPD program, it created an attitude in the teachers that “they’re doing everybody a favor by doing this” (Instructor 4).

Although instructors’ recognized the challenges of district involvement, they believed districts could and needed to play a role in teachers’ PD. First, district involvement and support could help bridge the gap between theory and practice as the district could work to ensure that what teachers learned in the course was applied in their classrooms. An instructor said it was up to the teachers to figure out how what they were doing in the KPD courses applied to their classrooms, but the responsibility for carrying out the techniques and methods would fall to staff and ESOL coordinators at the district level (Instructor 3). The instructor’s comments suggest that university program can only do so much to provide information, but PD programs need to work with districts to provide continued support. Second, district involvement could prove to be crucial for getting teachers into the proverbial door of PD programs. As teachers came to KPD largely because they felt pressured to become endorsed, the university program could seize the opportunity and help teachers realize the value of ESOL PD (Instructor 4). In essence, the district pressure and all of the KPD support got the teachers in the door, and the coursework itself needed to show teachers the importance of why they were there.

The relationship among the instructors, teachers, and school districts could be one way to evaluate the success of the KPD program. Stakeholders recognized and named many challenges in this partnership: teachers felt pressured to take the courses; administrators offered minimal support; and instructors claimed district involvement could have been better utilized to providing ongoing support and connections between theory and practice. Often administrators were quick to mention how the endorsement would help the districts, but they didn’t really talk about how important it was for the district to support the teachers in getting the ESOL endorsement

(Researcher memo, December 30, 2011). According to teachers, they were pressured or encouraged to take the courses, but they didn't receive the support from the districts they needed. An administrator helped illustrate the significance of the lack of support; he wondered if the districts minimal involvement with the KPD program might have influenced how teachers viewed their experiences with KPD and impacted their completion of the program (Administrator E1).

Changes in Teaching

Some teachers reported that from the KPD courses and what they had learned about ESOL, they had changed their teaching. Even teachers who said they found difficulty in applying the theory to the classroom, reported some benefits of taking the coursework. For example, a teacher said that through the KPD courses he began to understand the struggles of ELs and realized that they were trying to adapt and learn English (Teacher C1). He provided an example of how his teaching changed; before the courses he became frustrated in interacting with a student whose English was minimal. After the KPD courses he was more careful about how he explained things and took more time to show the student what he wanted him to do. The teacher said that at first he was fighting the KPD course "tooth and nail," but he learned that ESOL was really just focusing on "how to adapt to second language learners and how [to make] their education process go better." He concluded, "I got to be more aware of their needs and how I can make things where they can have more success in the classroom. That's what I feel like it's done for me" (Teacher C1). Another teacher who also left the program early said the cultural diversity class really opened her eyes and made her have more sympathy and awareness to what ELs go through (Teacher E7). This math teacher saw an increased need to talk about vocabulary and use graphic organizers with her students, even though she had few ELs in her classroom (Teacher

E7). An English teacher said she tried to give the students more information about the background of a story, made test modifications, slowed down more, and tried to make things more meaningful to the students (Teacher E3).

Teachers who completed the program reported more extensive changes to their teaching. Two math teachers reported they used cooperative group more and focused on connecting the vocabulary to students' previous knowledge (Teacher A4; Teacher D1). The details of a high school speech teacher's application of the material demonstrate that the information from the KPD courses shaped her teaching. The teacher said she was always really big on native language support, but after the KPD courses she was "beyond big;" she not only allowed students to use their native language but also encouraged it by grouping bilingual students together, asking the students to think about how they would say things in Spanish, and giving them key words in Spanish on classroom assessments (Teacher D2). The teacher also talked about knowing the students' backgrounds, the family support, and their experiences in the United States. The teacher said the assessments course with KPD changed the way she conducts classroom exams, the way she grades them, and the interventions that followed (Teacher D2).

The reports of changes in teaching were supported by evaluation team's tentative findings. Although the KPD numbers prevented them from gathering enough data to publish, they evaluated the KPD on several measures. They assessed the redesign of the TESOL courses to accommodate an online delivery, completed basic measures of central tendency to illustrate course completion among the teachers, determined how many teachers with endorsement would be teaching in instructional settings serving ELs, and lastly determined the effectiveness of the KPD program design by examining the lesson plans of KPD-trained teachers (Evaluation report, 2012). Through these evaluation efforts, the team concluded that KPD-trained teachers

demonstrated more deliberation and planning when creating lesson plans, included concepts of SIOP in their lesson plans more often than non-KPD trained teachers, and scored slightly higher than a control group in 8 of the 24 criteria included in the SIOP lesson plan delivery evaluation (Evaluation report, 2012). However, in each case the evaluation team exercised caution in making conclusive statements about the effectiveness of the program as the differences were not significant. The evaluation team attempted to provide an objective and quantifiable take on whether the program was successful in terms of influencing teachers' attitudes and beliefs, but the studies were inconclusive.

Unintended Consequences

Another way to evaluate the success of the program was by looking at the unintended consequences of the KPD program. These are outcomes of the KPD program that stakeholders did not expect from the program, but that they attribute to the program. This definition of success was first suggested by a program director who advised me to go beyond the numbers of KPD completers to “hear what people see as the benefits that were—weren’t necessarily intended” (Director 1). She explained that we often don’t look at all the other things that happen “that are good, that are beneficial, [but] they are just hard to put a cost value on” (Director 1). These consequences were not written into the grant proposal or measured by the evaluation team, but from the perspectives of the stakeholders are valuable in understanding the success of the program.

One of the unintended consequences of KPD was that stakeholders recognized the need for further research. Through the KPD program and this study, it became apparent that stakeholders of all types needed more information about how PD could influence teaching and student achievement. The evaluation team set out to determine if the KPD intervention produced

results in student grades and test scores, but this research plan was determined to have too many extraneous variables to produce meaningful results. School administrators wanted research to show that ongoing PD in ESOL was effective in producing better teaching and that it actually improved student success (Administrator A; Administrator B). Furthermore, administrators were interested in seeing whether teachers who took a series of courses were better prepared to teach ELs than those who took the abbreviated route to endorsement. Notably, even instructors, researchers in the TESOL field, said they really didn't know if teachers who went through the program were implementing ESOL practices in their classrooms (Instructor 2; Instructor 3), and they wanted information about the effectiveness of PD programs like KPD.

Stakeholders also noted that an unintended consequence was having a better understanding of in-service teachers and their needs. For example, an instructor said that he and another instructor had a conversation about the needs of the teachers and what they might need to know and why the teachers were demonstrating some resistance to the courses. The instructor who described this exchange said the other instructors better understood the teachers' situations and made some adjustments to the classes (Instructor 2). Another instructor mentioned that she gained a better understanding of both teachers in rural schools and in-service teachers. Through working with KPD, she had a better appreciation of the different roles that teachers in rural areas play; she said:

They are in these small schools and this is probably I didn't understand or appreciate as well as I should have, yeah, okay, so, we work with a lot of teachers who have families and that kind of thing too. These are teachers who are also in schools where they may be doing every extracurricular activity possible because there's so few teachers. So, a lot of

them coached everything. No matter what time of the year the class was, they were coaching something. (Instructor 1)

The instructor reported that she better understood in-service teachers and what teachers could bring to their ESOL courses (Instructor 1).

Anecdotes from participants also suggest that KPD shaped the ESOL PD program that followed it at Wheat University. Even in the final semesters of KPD, classes for the next grant program were taking place, and like KPD, the new program offered tuition assistance to in-service teachers primarily through distance learning opportunities. Unlike the situation with KPD, the teachers were all from one school district about 30 miles from the university. Stakeholders who played a part in both grants said their experiences with KPD shaped the following grant and their role within it. As many of the same people who were involved in KPD helped in some way to contribute ideas and write the following grant, it makes sense they helped shape it along the way. Furthermore, a director for KPD became the principal investigator for the following grant and she reportedly sought ways to make the program more practical and less theory-driven; she asked instructors concerned about both theory and practice to teach the courses, included instructional coaching, and provided workshops to teachers and paraprofessionals (Director 1). Both instructors and directors noted that KPD had a lack of coaching and mentoring, but the following grant included a coaching component where mentors would visit the teachers' classrooms frequently to ensure they incorporated the information and knowledge from their ESOL coursework to their instruction (Grant application, 2011). Instructors said through KPD they learned in-service teachers needed opportunities to connect the coursework to their classrooms, and one instructor felt that what she had learned from KPD was applied to the PD grant that followed. With the goal of making the courses more relevant to

teachers, the instructor revamped her courses to encourage teachers to interact with the text and find meaning by examining their own experiences (Instructor 1). From their experiences with KPD instructors and directors had a better understanding of improvements that could be made to the PD model.

Summary of Concepts of Success

Stakeholders provided many different definitions of success of the KPD program. The evaluations of just the number of teachers participating and completing the program didn't give the complete picture about the value of the program. Stakeholders examined the involvement of the districts, the partnerships at the university, the changes in teachers' practice, and also, the unintended consequences of learning from the program. Part of the value of KPD was in learning the challenges and the tensions between the various stakeholders and figuring out how to make it better.

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This study described the KPD program from multiple perspectives through an analysis of the interviews, participant observation, and a document review. The research was guided by three questions that addressed the nature of the KPD program according to various stakeholders, definitions and concepts of the program's success, and lessons learned from the program. This last chapter focuses on the last of these three questions and offers a discussion of the main results and implications, framed by the previously reviewed literature. More specifically, the findings are discussed in terms of how they align or depart from current research related to PD efforts to support teachers. The examination of the literature provided in Chapter Two revealed a variety of constructs that informed this inquiry. Although many of the findings of this inquiry are consistent with literature, other findings contribute to this body of scholarship by offering different viewpoints within a unique sociocultural context. The limitations of the current study are also explored and suggestions for future research are considered.

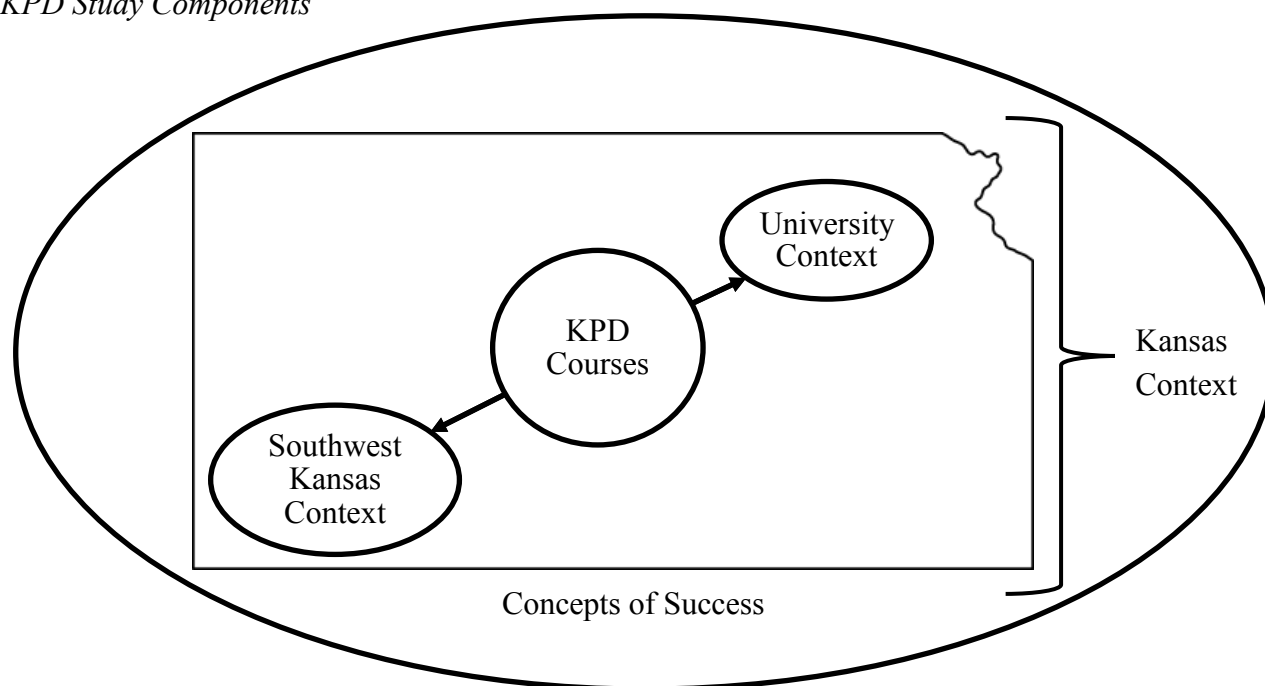
Summary of Findings

The findings of the KPD study have been organized into five broad areas (Figure 3). First, the university context and the TESOL program at Wheat University were explored to establish the tradition of PD programs and instructors' involvement with the program. Second, teachers' understanding of their EL population and ESOL support services along with perceptions of their roles were explored to build a general characterization of the teaching force in Southwest Kansas. Third, the sociocultural context of Kansas was considered, including the endorsement process itself and how the endorsements were tied to state funding, and thus, administrative decisions. Fourth, participants' experiences and perspectives relevant to the

delivery and content of the KPD courses were discussed. Fifth, the participants' definitions and concepts of success were explored. These categories are analyzed both in terms of how they connect to current research and to each other.

Figure 3

KPD Study Components



University Context: TESOL Program at Wheat University

Within the university context, this study revealed three main areas that will be explored further here; the implications of having three PD programs at the university, the instructors' motivations for participating in KPD and how their roles at the university were at times in conflict with their involvement with KPD; and instructors' understanding of Southwest Kansas and the in-service teachers.

First, the analysis shows that PD programs like KPD are part of the tradition of the university. The KPD program was the second of three National Professional Development Grants awarded to the institution, and most directors and university instructors in the KPD study

were involved in some way with at least one of the other programs. On one hand, it could be valuable to the program to have stakeholders who bring their experience and knowledge from one program to the next. Both instructors and directors described how the lessons learned from KPD helped shape the following PD grant where they offered more instructional coaching and ongoing support.

On the other hand, the cycle of grants can be problematic. To gain the attention of grant reviewers, the university had to put forth an innovative idea for PD, a plan that involved many stakeholders with attention to various areas of need. The analysis indicates, however, that plan was overly ambitious and did not consider the many variables that would influence the program's outcomes. It could be argued that the KPD program didn't emerge from a need established by districts and teachers in Southwest Kansas; rather, the KPD plan originated at the university where instructors and directors saw an opportunity to bring funding to Kansas and expand the reach of the university. The lack of meaningful collaboration in the early stages could be due to the fact that given the timeline of the grant application process with award notification in the fall and classes beginning the following semester, there was little time for discussions among university stakeholders, districts administrators and teachers on the design and implementation of the plan. As noted in the literature, effective PD needs the input, commitment, and involvement of all stakeholders in the planning process (Bartholomew & Sandholz, 2009; Pritchard & Marshall, 2002), but KPD struggled to gain teachers' buy-in throughout the life of the grant.

Furthermore, because of the nature of such large education grants, it was important that KPD show the value of the program and its progress toward meeting the targeted goals to the funding agency, which meant that challenges may have been understated in reports and

evaluations. As a graduate research assistant, I wrote reports for the program, and I was advised to include teachers who left the program but took the Praxis in the count of program completers. The reports were also edited by directors to eliminate any indication that the program was not meeting the targets that had been set or that there were any challenges at all. Though shedding a positive light on the program might be common practice in grant reporting, it prevents stakeholders from critically examining the aspects of the program that are not working. In addition, future grants cannot build on the lessons learned because the story about the program didn't accurately represent the gaps in its design and implementation. By not disclosing or fully acknowledging the challenges, there was little chance for the program to build on lessons learned.

In the findings about the university context, I discussed the instructors' motivations to be involved in the KPD program along with some of the challenges they experienced as the KPD was implemented. To my knowledge, research has not previously been conducted specifically on the motivation of faculty members or instructors to participate in PD programs offered to teachers other than to demonstrate that instructors have much to gain from the experience (Cox, 2000; Snow-Gerono et al., 2002). Instructors in this study said they were motivated to work with KPD because they saw it as a part of what they already do; they teach courses to in-service teachers to help them improve their practice. They also wanted to provide a service to Kansas schools and communities, a finding which is similar to those of Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) who found instructors were motivated by many different things, among them the altruistic goals of helping their communities.

The current study also builds on the body of research related to the university expectations for faculty to teach, research, and serve. University instructors wanted to be a part

of KPD because they were interested in teaching in-service teachers and serving an underserved area. Though only one of the KPD university instructors named the potential for research and publications as a reason for being involved in KPD, all three university faculty members expressed disappointment that no research came from the project. Furthermore, the instructor who was untenured at the time decided to end, or at least suspend, her involvement with the program because it took too much time from her research. The instructors' responses related to their research interests and needs were consistent with those of faculty members in Blackburn and Lawrence's (1995) study. In detailing their framework for understanding faculty at work, Blackburn and Lawrence found that the pressure to publish and the faculty members' resultant productivity were largely dependent on properties of the environment. To clarify, faculty members at Research I universities (i.e., those that are classified as having very high research activity) were under more pressure to publish and published more than faculty at other types of institutions. They also found that the faculty members' professional rank and tenure were consequences of their performance. In other words, there was a positive relationship between rank and productivity, supporting the notion that the way one advances in academia is by publishing. Interestingly, Blackburn and Lawrence also noted that faculty members who are supported by grants typically produce more publications than those who are not. In the case of KPD, however, the grant funding—a total of almost \$1.5 million dollars—did little to bring about publications.

The work of Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) provides a useful framework for analyzing other aspects of the instructors' participation in KPD. Blackburn and Lawrence found that faculty members frequently devoted less time to teaching than to research because publications are what's valued and rewarded at the institution in the form of promotion and tenure. They state

that no clear products from teaching can be reliably measured and there is no consensus on high quality teaching. In some ways, KPD outcomes reflect this finding. Instructors reported they knew there were problems with how courses were structured, but they didn't have time to revamp them and make them more applicable to in-service teachers. Instructors also said they didn't have time to travel to Southwest Kansas and provide face-to-face courses and interactions that relevant research recommend (Goodwin et al., 2005; Lesniak & Hodes, 2000) and that was written into the KPD grant proposal. Among all of their other responsibilities at the university, instructors struggled to find time to devote to the development and teaching of the courses. Furthermore, KPD didn't produce a clear product that could measure the instructors' teaching; at the end of the grant, questions about the effectiveness of the courses themselves were still being asked.

KPD instructors identified a mismatch in how they viewed their responsibilities as teacher educators and their roles in KPD. Moreover, once these tensions appeared, the KPD program didn't have a way to address them; the primary solution offered was that instructors had to change. For example, instructors were asked by students, program directors, and district administrators to greatly modify what they believed to be reasonable expectations for graduate level work: to reduce the required readings, be flexible with assignment deadlines, and offer grades of "incomplete" to students who needed additional time to finish their assignments. Research on effective PD recommends instructors be aware of participants' limitations of time and availability and mold the PD to their needs (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Hawley & Valli, 1999); however, it doesn't address the potential disadvantages of doing so. In the KPD study, instructors reported a loss of autonomy and questioned the quality of the product they offered as a result of bowing to these demands. Yamagata-Lynch and Smaldino (2007) offer a framework

for anticipating conflicts such as these, identifying them in collaboration with stakeholders, and working to solve them together.

The last finding relevant to the university context is the instructors' understanding of the in-service teachers and their teaching situations. Research on effective PD suggests that involved partners should have ample time to get to know each other and understand teacher needs (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Hawley & Valli, 1999) and that instructors need to understand the local factors that play a role in teachers' classrooms (Ramanathan et al. 2001). Instructors in KPD admitted they had little knowledge of schools, ELs, and ESOL support services in Southwest Kansas. According to instructors' reports, the majority of their experiences in offering TESOL courses were with teachers in the northeastern part of the state who planned to teach in surrounding suburban or urban schools. The challenges in building relationships between instructors and teachers and the teachers' reports of the lack of relevance in KPD suggest that mutual understanding was lacking. Not only did the instructors not understand the sociocultural context of Southwest Kansas, but they also faced the challenge of providing PD to in-service teachers in Southwest Kansas and many other types of students at the same time. The findings of the KPD study lend support to current literature which suggests that PD opportunities be customized to the participants and the context (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Hawley & Valli, 1999; Ramanathan et al., 2001).

Southwest Kansas Context

The nine districts in Southwest Kansas showed great variation in the size and demographics of the EL population and the ways they provided support services. Districts with a high number of ELs usually had diverse populations with students at all ranges of language proficiency and offered a range of district support. Generally, KPD teachers in those districts

understood the variety in their EL population, tailored their instruction to the students' needs, and reported the KPD courses to be mostly relevant to their classrooms and teaching. Districts with a moderate number of ELs generally had fairly proficient students who were Spanish-speaking or German Mennonite. In these districts, some supports were offered, but mainly from the one or two ESOL support staff members. Though EL support was supposed to be provided in the mainstream classroom, as well, teachers reported few adaptations made to their pedagogy to accommodate ELs. For the most part, teachers from these districts considered the KPD courses somewhat helpful. Lastly, two districts had a low number of ELs with little diversity among them. Teachers reported little contact with ELs and most of their interactions were with students who were already fairly proficient in English. These two districts had limited district support for ELs. Notably, teachers from one district who came to the KPD voluntarily were positive about the KPD experience and reported the courses were relevant to them and shaped their classroom practice. In contrast, teachers who felt pressure from the district to participate in KPD and become endorsed, reported the courses were not relevant to them.

Similar to the findings of Walker et al. (2004), the findings of the current study suggest the characteristics of the districts shaped not only teachers' views of the support ELs needed but also their perspectives of the KPD program. More specifically, Walker et al. found that teachers in "low-incidence" schools, with less than 10% EL enrollment, generally had positive attitudes about ELs—they were likely to believe that ELs tend to perform well academically, they found them easy to work with, and welcomed them in schools, but they did not see an urgent need for training. In KPD, there were two districts that were considered to have a EL low enrollment (defined as 15% or less of the student population), District A and District E. Teachers from District A who enrolled in KPD voluntarily were similar to the teachers in Walker et al.'s study;

generally, they were positive about the ELs in their classrooms and believed they could apply what they learned in the KPD courses to their classrooms. Notably, three of the four teachers in this district completed all the coursework and became endorsed. In contrast, teachers from District E who reported being pressured or forced to be a part of KPD generally reported their students didn't need additional help in the classroom beyond the paraeducator support provided and didn't believe the KPD courses were relevant to their teaching. None of the teachers in this district completed all the KPD courses, but four took the exam route to endorsement.

The characteristics of the two other types of schools in Walker et al.'s (2004) study and the KPD schools seem to have important differences that make a comparison between them difficult. To elaborate, none of the districts involved in KPD could be considered "rapid-influx schools" where recent waves of refugees "overwhelmed" the city. At one time in the past, two of the districts in KPD probably shared some of characteristics of the rapid-influx schools, but they are a bit removed from the initial responses to demographic change. In addition, the KPD districts are different from the migrant-serving schools described in Walker et al.'s study in that the KPD districts provided some form of ESOL education for migrant students. Even though some of KPD districts and schools cannot be readily compared to those in the study, Walker et al. provide a way to analyze the district features with the goal of understanding how they may shape teacher and administrator views of the education of ELs and PD opportunities related to ESOL.

In examining the KPD districts and the ESOL situation in each, it becomes clear that districts in Southwest Kansas have different challenges related to the education of ELs. These differences suggest the need for PD to respond to the context of the district and help teachers apply the information learned in the courses to their own classrooms. Throughout the interviews,

teachers said KPD courses would be great for teachers who were in a different teaching environment, but they struggled to see how they applied to their situations, their classrooms, their districts, and their ELs. For example, several teachers said the information might be useful to teachers where there were more ELs, where the ELs were not as proficient, or where there were ESOL support systems in place. PD should ensure that teachers in any teaching context are leaving the experience with knowledge and skills to apply what they learned in their own classrooms. As described by KPD participants and supported by literature, teachers needed more opportunities to practice applying what they were learning in the courses in their own classrooms given their situations, students, and constraints (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). Despite the instructors' attempts to make KPD courses applicable and the goal of providing ongoing instructional coaching, teachers and instructors reported it wasn't enough.

The section on Southwest Kansas not only provided "thick descriptions" (Geertz, 1973) of the districts but also underscored the many different responsibilities in teachers' roles, and how, given the nature of the rural schools, they often had to take on additional duties in the district. Teachers were busy coaching, sponsoring other extracurricular activities, and leading community activities, in addition to family responsibilities, childcare, and health concerns. Simply put, teachers didn't have time to take full-fledged graduate courses while juggling their other responsibilities.

The teachers' perspectives can be analyzed in several ways. On one hand, teachers' collective story of "We're busy—we have lives" suggests that PD opportunities must be aware of the teachers' time constraints and offer programming that takes into consideration their many roles. Possible solutions offered in the literature are to allow release time for teachers, incorporate projects into teachers' daily activities, and use teacher experiences as a text for

exploring new ideas (Bérubé, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Newman, 2010). In KPD, the response to teachers' busy schedules was for instructors to reduce the course requirements and for teachers to do the minimum to get by, the least possible to get an "A" in the course. Furthermore, teachers and instructors' perceptions of each other further distanced the two groups.

On the other hand—one that assumes a more critical stance—teachers' perceptions of being too busy for the courses and the PD related to ESOL may suggest they are reluctant to devote time and attention to this segment of their student population. Walker et al. (2004) support this possible interpretation; teachers reported that ELs detract from the learning of mainstream students, ELs should adapt to American culture, and their main responsibility as teachers was to the "majority" population in their classrooms. The authors tentatively attribute their findings to cultural racism and ethnocentric bias. Drawing on the analysis of Walker et al. and others who found negative attitudes of mainstream classroom teachers toward ELs (Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Walker et al., 2004), KPD teachers' "busy lives" may be an accepted excuse to resist the idea that their classrooms should change to meet the needs of ELs.

Kansas Context

The experiences and perspectives of the stakeholders in KPD were indelibly shaped by the Kansas geopolitical context. The state funding formula at the time of the study made it financially beneficial for districts to have as many teachers as possible endorsed in ESOL. In addition, the story of KPD coincided with the Kansas State Board of Education's decision to allow ESOL endorsement by exam only—a decision that offered financial benefits to rural districts that had difficulty getting their teachers to take coursework.

The connection between ESOL endorsements and district-level funding can be viewed and analyzed in several ways. On the positive side, the additional funding helped districts provide additional teachers, materials, ESOL support staff, and educational opportunities. District administrators recognized they could leverage this funding simply by having teachers become endorsed. Some teachers noted they pursued the endorsement specifically to help the district out with funding issues.

Another positive aspect of the policy to link funding to endorsements is that it did bring some districts and teachers to consider ESOL. A number of district administrators and teachers in the study acknowledged they wouldn't be looking at ESOL endorsement if it weren't for the funding that came from it. As one instructor put it, the funding got the teachers in the proverbial door, and once in the ESOL program, hopefully, they could begin to understand why the ESOL was important and how they could help their students (Instructor 4). Many teachers said that though they were forced or pressured to take the ESOL courses, and despite finding the courses largely irrelevant, they did learn something and became more aware of their students' needs. To extend this idea even further, the focus on the funding brought attention to ESOL at the district level and in some cases, ESOL endorsement and education became a district initiative with layered types of support. These findings from KPD relate to those of Pritchard and Marshall (2002) who found that healthy districts provided PD opportunities that were ongoing, sustainable, and part of district initiatives. In some cases KPD was a part of a larger district plan to address the needs of EL; in other districts the PD offered by KPD was not reinforced by other district activity.

There were also some negative outcomes. Teachers were some of the most vocal critics as many felt pressured or forced into the program so the district could receive additional funding.

Several KPD teachers said they didn't know what to expect from the courses, and many said they pursued an endorsement because of the district funding, not necessarily to help their students. Several teachers felt that being pushed to do the endorsement impacted their attitudes during the classes, how much work they were willing to put into it, and their commitment to the program. The findings in KPD are similar to those of Kriecker (2003) who found that Kansas teachers who were required to pursue an endorsement reported less satisfaction with the program and their learning than teachers who were motivated by a need to help students in their classrooms. Much research shows that for PD to be effective, teachers must have buy-in and support of the effort (Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006; Stephens & Boldt, 2004; Yamagata-Lynch & Smaldino, 2007). In KPD, teachers who did not come into the program willingly were reluctant to invest time into the program and try out some of the ideas in their own classrooms.

Another result of the focus on funding was a shift in the purpose of ESOL endorsements from preparing teachers to accommodate the needs of ELs to channeling additional funding to districts. Teachers sought endorsement mainly to satisfy district expectations of endorsement, and when the Praxis route to endorsement became available, teachers saw a way to meet the desired goal faster and more easily, regardless of whether it changed their classroom practice. This finding suggests that teacher motivations in pursuing PD may impact how they experience the coursework and what they gain from it. As Kreicker (2003) suggested, ESOL endorsement for Kansas teachers proved to be especially positive for teachers who were motivated to pursue it because of the ELs in their schools and classrooms.

The state's endorsement policy had consequences beyond just changing the way teachers became endorsed. Because of the decision, the education center began to offer Praxis prep courses to teachers as a relatively fast, cheap, and easy route to endorsement, an action that

resulted in KPD participants opting for the alternative route. In addition, because KPD was unable to recruit the anticipated number of teachers to the program, the evaluation team couldn't execute their planned research design. Directors and instructors, feeling as though they were working at cross purposes with the district, blamed the decline in teacher recruitment and retention on the Praxis decision, and the efforts of the evaluation team were thwarted by even fewer numbers of teachers in the KPD program.

Most stakeholders of all types opposed this type of endorsement; it wasn't an accurate measure of teachers' abilities to work with ELs, the cut-off score was too low, the process undermined the university's efforts to prepare teachers. However, some participants demonstrated a contradiction in their thoughts and actions related to the Praxis; directors counted Praxis completers as program completers, instructors modified their courses to better align with the Praxis, teachers left the program to take the Praxis, and the project coordinators set up shop to get teachers through the exam quickly and easily. Simply put, KPD stakeholders contracted their own educational values, a finding that supports that of Alamillo and Viramontes (2000), who found that teachers disagreed with state policies but felt forced to implement them in the classroom.

The Praxis decision highlights some of the contradictions inherent in developing and implementing policy. From the perspectives of the instructors, KSDE made the changes to the endorsement process without input from TESOL university faculty. Instructors viewed that in making the decision, KSDE was responding to funding challenges rather than considering what research-based practices would best prepare teachers and improve student learning. The instructors and the university were not invited to be a part of creating the policy, but they had to react to it by adjusting the course syllabi to meet what was on the test or reducing course

requirements to prevent teachers from dropping out and opting for the Praxis-only. Furthermore, instructors found themselves on the opposite side of the policy; they were trying to provide quality PD but the Praxis decision supported the notion that ESOL training wasn't necessary. In other words, the common ground that KSDE and the instructors once shared—that of valuing the coursework to prepare teachers—was no longer there. The findings from this study lend support to researchers like Olssen, O'Neill, and Codd (2004) who argue that educational policies are most sustainable when developed in consultation with various stakeholders.

Finally, the state's newly enacted ESOL endorsement policy highlights the districts' role in the PD of KPD teachers in at least three ways. First, research on teacher PD—this study included—suggests that teachers have many reasons for pursuing PD opportunities, and the pressure to complete job-related tasks is among them (Kreicker, 2003). Second, the findings align with those who found that teachers must have a certain degree of buy-in to find the benefits of PD (Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006; Stephens & Boldt, 2004; Yamagata-Lynch & Smaldino, 2007); districts have to go beyond “funding for the district” in explaining why PD related to ESOL is valuable. Third, the findings in the current study suggest district administrators should receive information and training in the field of ESOL so that they can better communicate to their faculty and staff how an ESOL program could provide them with tools and knowledge to meet the needs of students in their classrooms. Within the context of KPD, district administrators and ESOL coordinators with ESOL training were better prepared to articulate multiple reasons teachers should pursue an ESOL endorsement.

KPD Courses

The results from this study lend support to researchers like Stephens and Boldt (2004) who found PD efforts between universities and school and districts can be fraught with

challenges. Like the findings of Goodwin et al. (2005), the current study found that the distance learning of the courses allowed teachers in rural communities access to education and PD where regular face-to-face meetings were not possible. However, this access came at a price. KPD stakeholders reported many of the same challenges as participants in other studies; they found there were many technology glitches in videoconferencing, connection challenges impeded communication, and the delay in transmission influenced participants' willingness to participate (Conway, 2000; Lesniak & Hodes, 2000; Pawan et al., 2003). As Conway (2000) found, courses offered through videoconferencing have different challenges than online courses. KPD teachers reported the online courses were convenient but they had little meaningful interactions with their colleagues or instructors (Yang & Liu, 2004). The current study also illustrates the need for instructors to receive adequate training on using the distance learning technology, a recommendation provided by Feldman et al. (2000). It also suggests that instructors could benefit from learning to adapt their material to get the most benefit from distance learning courses. In other words, distance learning does not just mean transmitting the material from a traditional course through the use of technology. Rather, it calls for different strategies and different ways of interacting (Feldman et al., 2000).

KPD also offers insights into the importance of face-to-face meetings and suggests that the move to entirely distance learning courses may not be appropriate for all. Only a few KPD teachers had a chance to meet instructors from Wheat University, but many valued having someone observe in their classrooms and provide feedback. Teachers noted that they were generally only observed in the last course they took, but they reported they would have liked to have more instructional coaching along the way. Instructors, too, noted the lack of coaching and modeling. Moreover, both teachers and instructors who participated in the practicum course

where the observing and coaching happened reported it to be an awkward experience that offered little meaningful guidance. This finding from KPD is supported by several works that suggest that a change in teacher practices come with instructional coaching and guidance in trying out new ideas (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Feldman et al., 2000; Hawley & Valli, 1999).

The distance learning model also provided several insights about the importance of relationships and interactions among participants. KPD teachers mentioned that taking courses with their colleagues was helpful as they could discuss the material, work to apply it to their classrooms, and work together. Hawley and Valli (1999) found that teachers who take PD opportunities together often are able to apply the concepts more easily and can take a collaborative approach to solving problems. KPD also reflects the findings of (Lesniak & Hodes, 2000) in that interactions among the various sites was more difficult and teacher participants rarely got the chance to interact with teachers from different districts. The KPD study makes a unique contribution to the literature by suggesting that the interactions and relationships among the teachers and stakeholders shaped teachers' ability and willingness to participate in, and ultimately, learn from the KPD courses.

Lastly, the section on distance learning in KPD also explores the role of a mediator to help bridge the gaps in a distance learning program, a topic that has not been well-researched. Teachers noted the education center was a valuable resource in answering questions about KPD, providing resources for their teaching, and helping them through the endorsement process. When the university wasn't available for the teachers, the education center was. Several teachers also noted that their relationship with the local educational center would continue and they would pursue other educational opportunities there. In the literature related to distance learning, the role

of a mediator is rarely mentioned, but through the KPD study, its potential importance is revealed.

Another aspect of the KPD courses discussed in the findings was the course content. Like other studies (Clair 1995; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Peter et al., 2012), the KPD study found that teachers and instructors differed on their perceptions of what should be included in PD. Teachers mentioned the importance of techniques and practice, aspects of language with a focus on vocabulary, affective skills to make students feel comfortable in the classroom, and the background and culture of students. In comparison, instructors focused on theory, language development, and the sociocultural and political climate. Even in areas where the two groups agreed, techniques and practice, they accentuated different aspects. Teachers mentioned differentiation in instruction and the use of visuals in the classroom, and instructors noted the techniques and practice should be informed by theory. This study supports the well-documented division between what teachers and instructors value in the education of ELs (Clair 1995; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Peter, et al., 2012). Although instructor views about what teachers need to know better aligns with what research says teachers ought to know (Busch, 2010; Lucas, et al., 2008; Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2002), the varying perspectives suggest the need for the differences to be addressed, and if possible, reconciled.

The differences in teachers' and instructors' perspectives came to light in the KPD courses. In taking the courses, teachers wanted ideas and techniques they could apply in their classrooms. They expected to learn "hands on" activities they could do with their students, and they deemed the KPD courses "too theoretical" for the most part. Not only did teachers find the courses too theoretical, but they found they had to go from theory to practice without much instructional coaching or mentoring, a component of PD that is deemed to be critical in bringing

about change in teacher practice (Hawley & Valli, 1999). Instructors' views of the courses were much different; they said theory should inform practice, the courses were geared to K-12 teachers, and extra steps were taken to make the courses more applied. There were tensions not only in what teachers and instructors thought teachers should know but also in their perspectives of the content of KPD courses. These tensions further demonstrate the need to work with teachers in the planning processes of the program to explain the purpose of ESOL and to increase their buy-in.

The KPD study offers insights into teachers' perceptions of the KPD courses in relation to their EL population. As noted in the findings, teachers reported the KPD courses weren't relevant to them because their districts didn't have many ELs, the ELs spoke English fairly well, or ELs didn't enroll in their advanced courses. Their perspectives suggest teachers may not see the need for ESOL PD, because they rarely see ELs in their classrooms. This is similar to Walker et al.'s findings (2004) that teachers in low-incidence schools do not see an urgent need for training. However, the teachers' perspectives also suggest they may not fully understand who their ELs are, what their needs are, and how a different instructional approach may benefit them (García-Nevarez, et al., 2005; Harklau, 2000; Reeves, 2004).

Concepts of Success

Stakeholders reported many ways of understanding the success of KPD. They analyzed the number of teachers in the KPD program and how many completed the program. They described the "partnership" in the KPD program including the participation, contributions, and relationships among the stakeholders. They also explored some of the unintended consequences of the KPD program, such as the need for additional research, a better understanding of teacher needs, and information to carry into the next PD grant. As noted in research, there are many

ways to evaluate PD programs (Guskey, 2000), and some of these evaluations highlight the path from PD of teachers to student achievement (He et al., 2004), or note the change in teachers' attitudes and practice (Busch, 2010; Newman, 2010). In contrast, the study of KPD provides a comprehensive look at a PD effort from multiple perspectives to understand the program itself.

One criterion by which stakeholders viewed success was the relationships between stakeholders, and a particularly salient one was the relationship of the districts to other stakeholders. Most district administrators acknowledged they knew little about KPD and the amount of support offered to teachers varied considerably. A few districts purchased textbooks for the teachers and provided transportation, technology support, space for collaboration, and study sessions for the Praxis exam. Others districts intervened on teachers' behalf when the course requirements were deemed too difficult and other districts offered little or no support. Although research recommends ongoing district support specifically in university and district partnerships, and, generally, in PD (Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006), the KPD teachers found it lacking. For the most part, teachers said their districts wanted them involved in KPD, and even pressured them to participate, but then offered them little support to continue with the program. The challenges between the districts and teachers weren't confined to Southwest Kansas; instructors felt that because teachers were forced into the program, they were "reluctant learners," their participation in the courses was minimal, and their coursework was not of high quality.

Other interactions and relationships between stakeholders also contribute to an understanding of KPD's success. Although KPD was designed and depicted as a partnership in the grant application, few, if any, of the KPD participants described it as such. Furthermore, the metaphors used by participants to describe KPD often depicted separate entities that would

interact only at critical or contentious moments. These metaphors are telling; they help understand how participants viewed the program and the relationships between stakeholders. It is beyond the scope of this study to analyze these metaphors fully, but others have done similar research of teacher education and found the metaphors reflect deeply ingrained values and beliefs about education (Mahlios, Massengill-Shaw, & Barry, 2010).

Participants' views of future interactions among the partners were indicators of the program's success. Except in a few cases where teachers planned to continue their work with the project coordinators at the education center, once KPD ended, so did the interactions and relationships among the stakeholders. To elaborate, the TESOL department did not continue to have a presence in Southwest Kansas or with the education center, and the evaluation team and instructors did not continue to work together. The current study makes a valuable contribution to the literature by extending what others said have about tenuous nature of partnerships (Stephens & Boldt, 2004; Yamagata-Lynch & Smaldino, 2007) and goes a step further to explore that partnership from multiple perspectives.

The KPD study has many similarities to Yamagata-Lynch and Smaldino's (2007) research in which the researchers used activity theory to evaluate and improve K-12 school and university partnerships. The participants, which included K-12 and university staff, used a modified activity model to identify tensions in their program and determine strategies for overcoming difficulties. Like KPD, the participants in Yamagata-Lynch and Smaldino's study identified the tensions in facilitating effective communication, balancing theory and practice, and winning stakeholder commitment. However, unlike KPD, the participants were guided through activities to help them examine their relationships and plan and implement strategies that could be used to improve the program. Yamagata-Lynch and Smaldino acknowledge a limitation of

their study was that they didn't reflect the social context in which the partnership took place; the KPD attempts to fill this gap by examining the context of both Southwest Kansas and Wheat University.

Naturalistic Inquiry as Tool

This study does more than present findings about the KPD program; it demonstrates how naturalistic inquiry can be used to explore what the PD experiences mean to various stakeholders. Whereas the evaluation team's quantitative studies to evaluate the program could not be completed because of the inadequate participant sample size, a qualitative approach allowed for an extensive exploration of the KPD program. The various methods of data collection (including interviews, observations, and a document review) yielded enough information to critically examine how stakeholders' experiences and perspectives were shaped by contextual factors of the districts, the university, and Kansas policies related to ESOL endorsement and funding. The current study demonstrates how naturalistic inquiry can address questions of PD and education where other approaches fall short.

In addition, this naturalistic inquiry as a product serves to illustrate naturalistic inquiry as a process. In presenting this case study of KPD, I attempted to reveal my ethnographic path (Sanjek, 1990), to demonstrate how this study began with just some thoughts about how classroom teachers were responding to the KPD courses to become a full-fledged case study of the KPD program. Throughout this study, I have shown the study has been shaped by my "experiential knowledge" (Maxwell, 2005) and has been supported by analyses first explored and discovered through the process of writing thorough researcher memos. Through each section of this dissertation, I tried to demonstrate how the study was made stronger from the ongoing analysis, reflections, and consideration of ethical issues that I explored in researcher memos. I've

also highlighted the informed decisions I've made along the way—from transcribing interviews verbatim to using software to code the data to conducting member checks with participants. These aspects of the research process are described not only to demonstrate to the reader that I've considered these issues, but also to serve as an example of the many decisions a researcher makes in a study and how these decisions may ultimately shape the design, the analysis, and the findings. In sum, this case study of KPD serves as an example of naturalistic inquiry and highlights the many considerations involved in conducting this type of research.

Limitations

Like all research, the current study has a number of limitations. First, given the nature of qualitative research and its goal to provide a detailed account of the multiple realities, the position of the researcher, and the contextual factors surrounding the study, the findings may not be generalizable to other PD efforts. However, following the recommendation of Lincoln and Guba (1985), “thick description” of the participants and the context were provided to allow the reader to make a judgment about how the interpretations related to KPD might apply to another PD opportunity.

Second, my position as a researcher who was also serving as a graduate research assistant with the KPD program may have shaped participants' willingness to share information without reserve. At the same time, participants reported they were more willing to participate in the study and talk about KPD because they had an established relationship with me (see Appendix C). In addition, my involvement with KPD allowed me to begin “prior ethnography” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) to begin to know some of the stakeholders involved and tease out critical questions of interest for this study.

Third, a possible limitation of the KPD study as presented in this dissertation is that the depth of the study may have been sacrificed to allow for the scope of the study. In interviewing 63 KPD participants and focusing on so many different aspects of KPD and the context, I wasn't able to analyze the information at the district or participant level. When I began this study, I planned to analyze KPD with the unit of analysis being teachers' experiences and perspectives, but much of this fell away to allow for a case study of the KPD program. Future studies of KPD may examine any one of the stakeholder groups in a much more detailed way.

Implications

This study demonstrated how participants experienced the KPD program in interaction within their own context, within the Kansas context, and interaction with other stakeholders. In the remainder of this section, I elaborate on the implications of this study around three particular issues that teachers, instructors, district administrators, and policy makers should consider; the contextual factors, the policies, and the "distances" in PD opportunities.

Contextual Factors

This study has shown that stakeholders' experiences with KPD were largely shaped by the context in which they found themselves. In short, instructors responded to pressures from the university, district administrators reacted to funding and ESOL endorsement changes, and teachers acted in different ways based partly on the context of their schools, EL populations, and school and community roles. Even the KPD program responded to the Kansas context as the process of ESOL endorsement changed. Some of the challenges and tensions in the KPD program were a result of stakeholders responding to these external factors or not understanding the factors that other stakeholders experienced. Based on the results of this study, those

interested in designing, implementing, and evaluating PD opportunities would do well to explore and understand the many contextual factors that are at play.

Policies

As described in the findings, KPD stakeholders responded to educational policies and practices. First, districts received additional state funding when teachers in the process of becoming ESOL endorsed, or held their endorsements, had contact time with ELs. Second, shortly after KPD began, teachers were no longer required to take coursework for the endorsement; they only had to pass the Praxis. Together the policies encouraged districts to get teachers endorsed, and the route they took to endorsement was of little importance. In addition, participants of all types reported they acted in contradictory ways as a result of the policies. The nature and effect of these two policies together illustrate the need for educational policies to emerge after considerable input from parties involved. The policy of how teachers become endorsed needed the input from university instructors, district administrators, ESOL coordinators, and teachers. Furthermore, policies should be formed with an eye on the literature.

Distance

Throughout this study, many tensions in the KPD program have been explored. In an earlier draft of the dissertation, I conceptualized these tensions as “distances” in the program. To explain, the KPD had to contend with not only the physical distance between the university and the districts in Southwest Kansas, but also metaphorical distance between them. For example, teacher and instructor views on what was needed in the program differed greatly; there was “distance” in their perspectives. There was further distancing between the two groups because of the distance learning technology that didn’t allow for easy communication, stifled participation, and prevented meaningful interactions. Another area of “distance” was reflected in the policies in

place in Kansas, and stakeholders' views and actions related to them. Instructors' roles at the university also revealed "distance" in that they came to KPD expecting to impact the teachers and schools and to conduct meaningful research that would lead to publications. The notion of "distance" in the KPD program helps to understand some of the conflicts and tensions. It also provides a way of examining how the involvement of the education center and technology helped bridge the various types of distance in the program. To conclude, those who plan and implement PD opportunities would do well to explore the potential "distances" in their programs to identify tensions and develop strategies to overcome them.

Future Research

This study provides exploratory information on the perspectives and experiences of a variety of stakeholders toward the KPD program, and though it provides a holistic view of the KPD, further research is needed to fully understand the many factors that shape PD opportunities. The KPD study suggests several areas for future study.

This study did not address how or if teachers involved in the KPD transferred their learning to the classroom. Some KPD teachers provided accounts of how they applied the course material to their classrooms, and future studies could build on the findings by examining how and to what extent PD related ESOL impacts student achievement. University instructors noted the need to strengthen this vein of research to be able to make a case for coursework in TESOL, and the evaluation team mentioned this research was difficult to carry out as they had to account for many variables. Unfortunately, the literature related to PD of teachers often stops at examining how teachers' attitudes and perception change, without exploring if students in the classroom were impacted.

A future study may also explore the metaphors used in PD opportunities to better understand how stakeholders understand the process, goals, and success of the programs. Some have already begun to use metaphors as a way to understand teachers' beliefs and practices as they relate to learning to teach and teacher education (Mahlios et al., 2010), and while the KPD begins to explore the topic, further research could be useful for uncovering how teachers' and other stakeholders view effective PD practices.

The scope of the current study did not allow for an analysis of individuals teachers' perspectives and experiences. To present a case study of the KPD, case studies of teachers were sacrificed. Future studies could build on the current study by taking teachers as the unit of analysis and exploring how a particular teacher came into the program, responded to the coursework, viewed district support, and evaluated the success of the program. Fortunately adequate data were gathered for many teacher participants to provide this type of analysis.

Another area of study is teacher perceptions of various courses and their perspectives of how valuable and relevant they were. To elaborate, in KPD teachers reported the courses regarding methods and assessments provided hands-on activities they could implement in their classrooms; however, they reported the second language acquisition and the linguistics courses were too theoretical. Even though research has begun to explore teacher perceptions of various courses (Busch, 2010; Newman, 2010), further studies could shed light on the elements of PD that are perceived to be the most helpful to teachers.

Future research can also explore the role of reflexivity in qualitative research. Throughout this dissertation process, I have reflected on my roles as a researcher and graduate research assistant, considered ethical decisions, analyzed methodical decisions, and made connections between literature, the interview data, and my analyses. I have attempted to

elucidate my own recognition of the fact that the researcher is part of the social context studied (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). I've started to connect my own experiences with writing research memos to literature to explore the various ways that the practice can strengthen both the process and product of qualitative research (Summers-Rocha, 2014), and this is an area of research where future contributions can be made.

Through a detailed account of the KPD program, the nature of the KPD program and the related relationships among stakeholders was revealed. This research showed that stakeholders in the KPD reported many challenges within their own contexts, in the context of Kansas, and in the interactions between stakeholders. At the same time, stakeholders acknowledged many ways to examine the success of the program.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Statement of Informed Consent

KPD Stakeholders

Approved by the Human Subjects Committee of Wheat University
Approval expires one year from 10/5/2011.

A Case Study of the KPD Project:
A Distance-Learning Program for In-service Teachers Seeking ESOL Endorsement

INTRODUCTION

The Department of Curriculum and Teaching at Wheat University supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You may refuse to sign this form and not participate in this study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time. If you do withdraw from this study, it will not affect your relationship with this unit, the services it may provide to you, or Wheat University.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to explore a teacher education program, the KPD project, which provides ESOL training to in-service teachers. Specifically, this study seeks to examine the KPD project from various perspectives with the goal of understanding the strengths and challenges of the program.

PROCEDURES

To understand the KPD program through the perspectives of various participants, I would like to interview you. The interview will last approximately one hour, and, with your permission, will be tape-recorded. All notes, audio recordings, and related transcripts will be used only for the purpose of research and will be stored in a locked cabinet.

RISKS and BENEFITS

There are no risks associated with this research. The benefit will be to you, other classroom teachers, and students as we learn the best way to meet the needs of in-service teachers interested in ESOL education.

PAYMENT TO PARTICIPANTS

You will not be paid for your participation in this study.

PARTICIPANT CONFIDENTIALITY

All data collected will be used for the purpose of program improvement as well as for dissemination to the larger education community through conference presentations and journal publications. Please be assured that an attempt will be made to keep the information you provide in the interview confidential. Any data reported or published from the study will not disclose individual names or identifying information. However, because of the limited number of participants and the inclusion of contextual elements in this research, it may be possible that the

program, the university, and therefore, you as participants would be recognized. Confidentiality cannot be guaranteed.

Permission granted to use and disclose your information remains in effect indefinitely. By signing this form you give permission for the use and disclosure of your information for purposes of this study at any time in the future.

REFUSAL TO SIGN CONSENT AND AUTHORIZATION

You are not required to sign this Consent and Authorization form and you may refuse to do so without affecting your right to any services you are receiving or may receive from the Wheat University or to participate in any programs or events of the Wheat University. However, if you refuse to sign, you cannot participate in this study.

CANCELLING THIS CONSENT AND AUTHORIZATION

You may withdraw your consent to participate in this study at any time. You also have the right to cancel your permission to use and disclose further information collected about you, in writing, at any time, by sending your written request to: Lonna Summers Rocha, [address].

If you cancel permission to use your information, the researcher will stop collecting additional information about you. However, the researcher may use and disclose information that was gathered before they received your cancellation, as described above.

QUESTIONS ABOUT PARTICIPATION

Questions about procedures should be directed to the researcher(s) listed at the end of this consent form.

PARTICIPANT CERTIFICATION:

I have read this Consent and Authorization form. I have had the opportunity to ask, and I have received answers to, any questions I had regarding the study. I understand that if I have any additional questions about my rights as a research participant, I may call [number], write the Human Subjects Committee, Wheat University, [address], or email [email address].

I agree to take part in this study as a research participant. By my signature I affirm that I have received a copy of this Consent and Authorization form.

Type/Print Participant's Name

Date

Participant's Signature

RESEARCHER CONTACT INFORMATION

Lonna Summers Rocha
Principal Investigator
[Contact Information]

Dr. Lizette Peter
Faculty Advisor
[Contact Information]

In-service Teachers

Approved by the Human Subjects Committee of Wheat University
Approval expires one year from 10/5/2011.

A Case Study of the KPD Project: A Distance-Learning Program for In-service Teachers Seeking ESOL Endorsement

INTRODUCTION

The Department of Curriculum and Teaching at Wheat University supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You may refuse to sign this form and not participate in this study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time. If you do withdraw from this study, it will not affect your relationship with this unit, the services it may provide to you, Wheat University.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to explore a teacher education program, the KPD project, which provides ESOL training to in-service teachers. Specifically, this study seeks to examine the KPD project from various perspectives with the goal of understanding the strengths and challenges of the program.

PROCEDURES

To understand the KPD program through the perspectives of various participants, I would like to interview you, observe you in your classroom, and examine your written coursework associated with the KPD program. The interview will last approximately one hour, and, with your permission, will be tape-recorded. Observations will be scheduled for your convenience and may last from 30 minutes to two hours. All notes, audio recordings, and related transcripts will be used only for the purpose of research and will be stored in a locked cabinet.

RISKS and BENEFITS

There are no risks associated with this research. The benefit will be to you, other classroom teachers, and students as we learn the best way to meet the needs of in-service teachers interested in ESOL education.

PAYMENT TO PARTICIPANTS

You will not be paid for your participation in this study.

PARTICIPANT CONFIDENTIALITY

All data collected will be used for the purpose of program improvement as well as for dissemination to the larger education community through conference presentations and journal publications. Please be assured that any information you provide in the interview or observations will be kept confidential, and data reported or published from the study will not disclose individual names or any other identifying information.

Permission granted to use and disclose your information remains in effect indefinitely. By signing this form you give permission for the use and disclosure of your information for purposes of this study at any time in the future.

REFUSAL TO SIGN CONSENT AND AUTHORIZATION

You are not required to sign this Consent and Authorization form and you may refuse to do so without affecting your right to any services you are receiving or may receive from Wheat University or to participate in any programs or events of Wheat University. However, if you refuse to sign, you cannot participate in this study.

CANCELLING THIS CONSENT AND AUTHORIZATION

You may withdraw your consent to participate in this study at any time. You also have the right to cancel your permission to use and disclose further information collected about you, in writing, at any time, by sending your written request to: Lonna Summers Rocha [address].

If you cancel permission to use your information, the researcher will stop collecting additional information about you. However, the researcher may use and disclose information that was gathered before they received your cancellation, as described above.

QUESTIONS ABOUT PARTICIPATION

Questions about procedures should be directed to the researcher(s) listed at the end of this consent form.

PARTICIPANT CERTIFICATION:

I have read this Consent and Authorization form. I have had the opportunity to ask, and I have received answers to, any questions I had regarding the study. I understand that if I have any additional questions about my rights as a research participant, I may call [number], write the Human Subjects Committee at Wheat University [address] or email [email address].

I agree to take part in the following components of this study as a research participant. By my signature I affirm that I have received a copy of this Consent and Authorization form.

- ☐ Yes, I agree to be interviewed about my perspectives of the program.
- ☐ Yes, I agree to allow the researcher to use my class assignments for the purposes of this study.
- ☐ Yes, I agree to allow the researcher to observe my classroom for the purposes of this study.

Type/Print Participant's Name

Date

Participant's Signature

RESEARCHER CONTACT INFORMATION

Lonna Summers Rocha
Principal Investigator
[Contact Information]

Dr. Lizette Peter
Faculty Advisor
[Contact Information]

Appendix B: Interview Guides

Interviews with University Instructors

Background

1. Tell me a little bit about your professional background including your teaching experience and research interests.

Beginning of KPD

2. The KPD project started in 2007. Can you tell me about how it started?
 - a. Who was involved in writing the grant? What was the Institute's role?
 - b. What was your role as a faculty member in the initial stages of the project?
 - c. How did you become involved with KPD?
 - d. Can you describe your motivation for working with KPD?

Implementation

3. Can you provide an overview of KPD? How would you describe the KPD project, its goals, and its activities?
4. You participated in the KPD project as a faculty member. What did this role entail?
 - a. There are many people (including other KPD faculty members, program directors, the project coordinators in Southwest Kansas, the evaluation team, school administrators, and in-service teachers) involved in the KPD project. Can you tell me about your role in communicating with the other people in the KPD project?
 - b. Can you tell me about your role in making decisions about the program? Tell me about a time when you influenced the program. Can you tell me about a time when you felt the program was moving in a direction that you didn't agree with, but had to go along with it?
5. KPD is a five year grant and it's in its fifth year now. Describe any changes to the KPD project since its implementation. What were the reasons for these changes?
 - a. How has your role changed over the course of the grant? What do you attribute these changes to?
 - b. What are the goals of the grant in the final year?

Courses

6. KPD is a project to help teachers be effective in the classroom. In your opinion, what do teachers who work with ESOL students need to know to be effective?
7. One of the goals of the KPD project is to increase the number of ESOL-endorsed teachers. What does it mean for a teacher to be ESOL-endorsed? What characteristics or knowledge should they have?
8. I know what courses you taught for KPD and I've seen the syllabus you used for the courses. I'm wondering, though, what do you hope that KPD teachers would learn in the ESOL courses?
 - a. Do you think the courses were relevant and beneficial to the in-service teachers? How do you know?
 - b. What do you think would make the courses more beneficial or relevant to KPD teachers?
9. When you started teaching KPD courses, you may have had certain ideas about the course and expectations for the teachers. Can you tell me about those ideas and expectations?

- a. Did you find that you had to change your ideas or expectations to fit the teachers' needs, interests, and expectations? Would you give me an example?
- b. Did you make adaptations to the course? Can you describe them? Why did you make the changes?
- c. What did you feel about making these changes?

Distance Learning or Online Courses

- 10. We've talked a little bit about the courses, but what would someone see if they sat in on your courses? Can you take me through a typical class session? What did you do?
 - a. Can you tell me about your interactions with the students? How did you address their questions and comments?
- 11. KPD courses were offered through video-conference sessions or through online courses. Describe the distance learning format of the courses you taught.
 - a. What was your experience with technology in the courses? Can you describe what went well with technology? Did you have any technical difficulties? If so, will you describe them?
 - b. You talked a little bit about interacting with the students, but can you talk about the classroom dynamics and student participation in these distance learning classes?
 - c. How did the distance-learning courses compare to similar courses you have taught? How do you think they compare in terms of what students were able to learn?
 - d. With the distance-learning courses, did you feel like you had to adjust the way you teach or interact with students? If so, how?
 - e. How would you compare the amount of work you put into the KPD courses to other similar courses?
- 12. How did you learn about teaching distance-learning courses?
 - a. Had you worked with distance learning courses before?
 - b. Did you take a professional development session about Blackboard or videoconferencing? Why or why not?
- 13. What do you feel about your abilities to teach an ESOL course through this distance learning format?
- 14. Part of the plan for the grant was for the ESOL courses to be redesigned for the distance-learning format. Can you tell me specific changes you made for the redesign?
- 15. Besides interactions in the classroom, what interactions did you have with KPD students?
 - a. Did you visit the KPD teachers in their classrooms? What did you gain from the visit?

Content of Courses

- 16. The goals and career plans of students and teachers who seek an ESOL endorsement or a degree may vary. There are K-12 teachers who want to add an endorsement to their teaching license. There are also international students and others who are interested in an academic career. Can you talk a little bit about the specific needs of the KPD teachers and how their needs are similar or different to those of other students?
- 17. At times the courses with KPD students had various types of students in them. You may have had to teach a course with students with a wide range of abilities and interests.
 - a. Did this mixture in your classroom influence your teaching? How?
 - b. How did you manage all the different needs of the students? Provide an example.

18. In the education field, there's a lot of discussion about theory and practice. What do you think was emphasized in the KPD courses?
 - a. Do you see a conflict between the university interests and the interests of the teachers in SW Kansas in relation to theory and practice?
19. In the courses you taught for KPD, did you talk about teachers and interacting with ESOL support staff (bilingual paraeducators, ESOL paraeducators or teachers)? Why or why not?

Research

20. Another aspect of KPD is research and evaluation. In the original grant application, the evaluation of the program was contracted to the School Program Evaluation and Research team. They were to address the research goals of the university.
 - a. Do you know if any research has been conducted about the KPD project? Why do you think that is?
 - b. Were you interested in conducting research with KPD? Why or why not?
21. Were you motivated to be involved in the KPD project considering your other responsibilities at the university? Why or why not?

Reflection

22. Just like any other project, there are strengths and weaknesses of a large educational project like this. In your opinion, what are the strengths and weaknesses of the KPD project? What could have been done differently to make it a stronger program?
23. How would you describe the nature of the relationship between the university, the school districts, and the teachers working toward their ESOL endorsement?
 - a. Some might describe this relationship as a team, in which everyone communicates and works well together. Others might describe it as a zoo, in which there is a zookeeper who takes care of everything and regulates what everyone does. How would you describe the KPD project? Can you elaborate on that idea? How does it describe your role and the relationship between the members?
24. There have been 57 in-service teachers who were a part of KPD. Of these, 10 have completed the coursework and practicum, and a total of 13 have taken the Praxis and become ESOL-endorsed. Considering these numbers and the time, resources, and effort to implement and sustain the program, do you think the project was worthwhile? Why or why not?
25. In 2008, the Kansas State Department of Education decided that teachers who successfully passing the Praxis Exam could obtain their ESOL endorsement without completing any ESOL coursework. What do you think of this decision?
 - a. What is gained and lost by allowing the endorsement by exam?
 - b. Some might say that allowing the ESOL endorsement by exam does not really help teachers or students, and is just a move to bring more money to districts. What do you think of that idea?
26. Wheat University recently received another professional development grant to help licensed teachers receive their ESOL endorsement. What advice would you give the program directors for implementing a program such as this?
27. What one question did I not ask about KPD that should I have? How would you respond to that question? Is there anything else you would like to say about the program?

Interviews with KPD Program Directors

Before Interview

- ☐ Do you mind if I record our conversation?
- ☐ Purpose: To understand your perspective of the KPD project
- ☐ Informed consent

Background

1. Tell me a little bit about your professional background including your teaching experience and research interests.

Beginning of KPD

2. Can you provide an overview of KPD? How would you describe the KPD project, its goals, and its activities?
3. The KPD project started in 2007. Can you tell me about how it started?
 - a. Who was involved in writing the grant? What was the Institute's role?
 - b. What was your role in the initial stages of the project?
 - c. How did you become involved with KPD?
 - d. What was your motivation for working with KPD?
 - e. What role did the faculty members and school administrators have in the initial stages of the project?
4. There have been some changes in KPD staff. Can you describe those changes?
 - a. Present Staff: How long have you worked with KPD? Describe the process as one person left KPD and another person assumed the responsibilities as program director? Did they provide any training or advice?
 - b. Past Staff: How long did you work with KPD? Why did you leave KPD? Describe the process as one person left KPD and another person assumed the responsibilities as program director? Did they provide any training or advice?
5. You participated in the KPD project as a program director. What did this role entail?
 - a. There are many people (including KPD faculty members, the project coordinators in Southwest Kansas, the evaluation team, school administrators, and in-service teachers) involved in the KPD project. Can you tell me about your role in communicating with the other people in the KPD project?
 - b. Can you tell me about your role in making decisions about the grant? Tell me about a time when you influenced the program? Can you tell me about a time when you felt the program was moving in a direction that you didn't agree with, but had to go along with it?

Implementation

6. One of the goals of the KPD project is to increase the number of ESOL-endorsed teachers. What does it mean for a teacher to be ESOL-endorsed? What characteristics or knowledge should they have?
7. The original grant application described a process for how teachers would be selected to participate in KPD. How were teachers in Southwest Kansas recruited and selected to participate? Did this selection process change over time? How? What are the financial and academic benefits to teachers who participate in KPD?

8. What interactions did you have with KPD in-service teachers? Did you visit the KPD teachers in their classrooms? What do you wish could have been different about your visit? What did you gain from the visit?
9. KPD is a five year grant and it's in its fifth year now. Describe any changes to the KPD project since its implementation. What were the reasons for these changes?
 - a. How has your role changed over the course of the grant? What do you attribute these changes to?
 - b. What are the goals of the grant in the final year?

Reflection

10. Just like any other project, there are strengths and weaknesses of a large educational project like this. In your opinion, what are the strengths and weaknesses of the KPD project? What could have been done differently to make it a stronger program?
11. How would you describe the nature of the relationship between the university, the school districts, and the teachers working toward their ESOL endorsement?
 - a. Some might describe this relationship as a team, in which everyone communicates and works well together. Others might describe it as a zoo, in which there is a zookeeper who takes care of everything and regulates what everyone does. How would you describe the KPD project? Can you elaborate on that idea? How does it describe your role and the relationship between the members?
12. There have been 57 in-service teachers who were a part of KPD. Of these, 10 have completed the coursework and practicum, and a total of 13 have taken the Praxis and became ESOL-endorsed. Considering these numbers and the time, resources, and effort to implement and sustain the program, do you think the project was worthwhile? Why or why not?
13. In 2008, the Kansas State Department of Education decided that teachers who successfully passing the Praxis Exam could obtain their ESOL endorsement without completing any ESOL coursework. What do you think of this decision?
 - a. What is gained and lost by allowing the endorsement by exam?
 - b. Some might say that allowing the ESOL endorsement by exam does not really help teachers or students, and is just a move to bring more money to districts. What do you think of that idea?
14. Wheat University recently received another professional development grant to help licensed teachers receive their ESOL endorsement. What advice would you give the program directors for implementing a program such as this?
15. What one question did I not ask about KPD that should I have? How would you respond to that question? Is there anything else you would like to say about the program?

Interviews with KPD Program Coordinators

Before Interview

- ☐ Do you mind if I record our conversation?
- ☐ Purpose: To understand your perspective of the KPD project
- ☐ Informed consent

Background

1. Tell me a little bit about your professional background including your teaching experience.
2. Can you tell me about the services you provide to teachers in Southwest Kansas?

Beginning of KPD

3. Can you provide an overview of KPD? How would you describe the KPD project, its goals, and its activities?
4. The KPD project started in 2007. Can you tell me about how it started?
 - a. Who was involved in writing the grant? What was the education center's role in writing the grant?
 - b. What was your role in the initial stages of the project?
 - c. How did you become involved with KPD?
 - d. What was your motivation for working with KPD?
 - e. What role did the faculty members and school administrators have in the initial stages of the project?
5. You participated in the KPD project as a project coordinator. What did this role entail?
 - a. There are many people (including KPD faculty members, the program directors, the evaluation team, school administrators, and in-service teachers) involved in the KPD project. Can you tell me about your role in communicating with the other people in the KPD project?
 - b. Can you tell me about your role in making decisions about the grant? Tell me about a time when you influenced the program? Can you tell me about a time when you felt the program was moving in a direction that you didn't agree with, but had to go along with it?
 - c. Can you tell me about the Praxis Exam preparation courses you have taught?

Implementation

6. One of the goals of the KPD project is to increase the number of ESOL-endorsed teachers. What does it mean for a teacher to be ESOL-endorsed? What characteristics or knowledge should they have?
7. The original grant application described a process for how teachers would be selected to participate in KPD. How were teachers in Southwest Kansas recruited and selected to participate? Did this selection process change over time? How?
8. What interactions did you have with KPD in-service teachers? Did you visit the KPD teachers in their classrooms? What did you gain from the visit?
9. KPD is a five year grant and it's in its fifth year now. Describe any changes to the KPD project since its implementation. What were the reasons for these changes?
 - a. How has your role changed over the course of the grant? What do you attribute these changes to?
 - b. What are the goals of the grant in the final year?

10. There have been some changes in KPD program directors of the life of the grant. Will you describe the process as one person left KPD and another person assumed the responsibilities of program director? What were the advantages and disadvantages of having several program directors?

Reflection

11. Just like any other project, there are strengths and weaknesses of a large educational project like this. In your opinion, what are the strengths and weaknesses of the KPD project? What could have been done differently to make it a stronger program?
12. How would you describe the nature of the relationship between the university, the school districts, and the teachers working toward their ESOL endorsement?
 - b. Some might describe this relationship as a team, in which everyone communicates and works well together. Others might describe it as a zoo, in which there is a zookeeper who takes care of everything and regulates what everyone does. How would you describe the KPD project? Can you elaborate on that idea? How does it describe your role and the relationship between the members?
13. There have been 57 in-service teachers who were a part of KPD. Of these, 10 have completed the coursework and practicum, and a total of 13 have taken the Praxis and became ESOL-endorsed. Considering these numbers and the time, resources, and effort to implement and sustain the program, do you think the project was worthwhile? Why or why not?
14. In 2008, the Kansas State Department of Education decided that teachers who successfully passing the Praxis Exam could obtain their ESOL endorsement without completing any ESOL coursework. What do you think of this decision?
 - a. What is gained and lost by allowing the endorsement by exam?
 - b. Some might say that allowing the ESOL endorsement by exam does not really help teachers or students, and is just a move to bring more money to districts. What do you think of that idea?
15. Wheat University recently received another professional development grant to help licensed teachers receive their ESOL endorsement. What advice would you give the program directors for implementing a program such as this?
16. What one question did I not ask about KPD that should I have? How would you respond to that question? Is there anything else you would like to say about the program?

Interviews with School Administrators

Before Interview

- ☐ Do you mind if I record our conversation?
- ☐ Purpose: To understand your perspective of the KPD project
- ☐ Informed consent

Background

1. Tell me a little bit about your professional background including your teaching experience.
2. Can you tell me a little bit about the ESOL population in your district and ESOL student demographics?
 - a. Tell me about the needs of your ESOL students.
 - b. What type of ESOL support and support staff do you have in your school (ESOL paraeducators, bilingual education, etc.)?
3. In recent years, there has been a push for teachers to become ESOL endorsed. Do you see ESOL endorsement as a main concern of the district? Why or why not?
 - a. How many of your teachers are ESOL endorsed?
 - b. Are there benefits to the teachers and district when teachers are ESOL endorsed? Describe.
 - c. Teachers can learn about ESOL through professional development workshops or in-services. Is an ESOL endorsement necessary? If so, why? What advantages are there when teachers complete endorsement?
4. One of the goals of the KPD project is to increase the number of ESOL-endorsed teachers. What does it mean for a teacher to be ESOL-endorsed? What characteristics or knowledge should they have?

KPD

5. Your district has been involved in the KPD project which provides ESOL-related coursework to in-service teachers. Can you provide an overview of KPD? How would you describe the KPD project, its goals, and its activities?
6. The KPD project started in 2007. Can you tell me about how it started?
 - a. Who was involved in writing the grant?
 - b. What was your role as a school administrator in the initial stages of the project?
 - c. How did you become involved with KPD?
 - d. What was your motivation (and the district's motivation) for working with KPD?
7. Do you know of any administration or district support offered to teachers who are enrolled in KPD courses? If so, please describe this support.

Reflection

8. Just like any other project, there are strengths and weaknesses of a large educational project like this. In your opinion, what are the strengths and weaknesses of the KPD project? What could have been done differently to make it a stronger program?
9. How would you describe the nature of the relationship between the university, the school districts, and the teachers working toward their ESOL endorsement?
 - a. Some might describe this relationship as a team, in which everyone communicates and works well together. Others might describe it as a zoo, in which there is a zookeeper who takes care of everything and regulates what everyone does. How

would you describe the KPD project? Can you elaborate on that idea? How does it describe your role and the relationship between the members?

10. There have been 57 in-service teachers who were a part of KPD. Of these, 10 have completed the coursework and practicum, and a total of 13 have taken the Praxis and became ESOL-endorsed. Considering these numbers and the time, resources, and effort to implement and sustain the program, do you think the project was worthwhile? Why or why not?
11. In 2008, the Kansas State Department of Education decided that teachers who successfully passing the Praxis Exam could obtain their ESOL endorsement without completing any ESOL coursework. What do you think of this decision?
 - a. What is gained and lost by allowing the endorsement by exam?
 - b. Some might say that allowing the ESOL endorsement by exam does not really help teachers or students, and is just a move to bring more money to districts. What do you think of that idea?
12. Wheat University recently received another professional development grant to help licensed teachers receive their ESOL endorsement. What advice would you give the program directors for implementing a program such as this?
13. What one question did I not ask about KPD that should I have? How would you respond to that question? Is there anything else you would like to say about the program?

Interviews with In-service Teachers

Before Interview

- ☐ Do you mind if I record our conversation?
- ☐ Purpose: To understand your perspective of the KPD project and the coursework
- ☐ Informed consent

Background

1. Tell me a little bit about your professional background. How many years have you been teaching? What subject or grade level are you currently teaching?
2. Will you describe your experiences with multiculturalism and/or interacting with people of different backgrounds, cultures, languages, etc.?
 - a. Do you speak another language?
 - b. Have you taken multicultural education?
 - c. Have you lived outside of the U.S.?
 - d. Have you hosted a foreign exchange student?
 - e. Do you think these experiences helped prepare you to teach? How?
 - f. Do you feel that your race/ethnicity influences the way you teach? Can you elaborate on your response?
3. Tell me about your experiences working with ESOL students. How many ESOL students do you have in your current teaching situation?
 - a. Where are they from?
 - b. What is their language level?
 - c. What challenges or surprises have you encountered when working with ESOL students?
4. Who is responsible for teaching ESOL students at your school? Can you describe the ESOL program at your school?
 - a. How do you work with support staff (bilingual paraeducators or ESOL paraeducators and teachers)?
5. There are many things teachers need to know to be effective teachers in the classroom. In your opinion, what do teachers who work with ESOL students need to know?
6. What does it mean for a teacher to be ESOL-endorsed? What characteristics or knowledge should ESOL-endorsed teachers have?

KPD

7. I am interested in learning about the KPD project and hearing your perspectives about it. Can you tell me why you signed up to begin the ESOL endorsement classes and be a part of the KPD project? What did you see as the benefits for you in completing the ESOL endorsement?
8. Some classroom teachers may not want to complete the ESOL endorsement because they don't want to be the "ESOL teacher" at school? Was that ever a concern for you? Have you noticed any changes to your teaching position since pursuing an ESOL endorsement?
9. There are several options for endorsement programs available to teachers in Southwest Kansas. Why did you decide to pursue an endorsement at Wheat University through the KPD project?
10. What did you expect when you enrolled in the courses? How does the program compare to your expectations?

11. I know what courses you took with KPD, but I want to know a little bit about what those courses looked like. Can you take me through a typical class session? What did you do?
 - a. Can you tell me about your interactions with the instructor and the other teachers?
 - b. How did the instructors address your questions and comments?
12. KPD courses were offered through video-conference sessions or through online courses. Describe the distance learning format of the courses you took.
 - a. What was your experience with the technology, class room dynamics and participation, technical difficulties, and scheduling?
 - b. How did the distance-learning courses compare to similar courses you have taken in terms of what you were able to learn?
 - c. How would you compare the amount of work you put into the KPD courses to similar courses?
 - d. With the distance-learning courses, did you feel like you had to adjust the way you learn or interact with other teachers or the course instructors?
13. Was the information in the courses relevant to your classroom setting? Could you apply what you learned to your classroom?
 - a. What class was most useful? Why?
 - b. What classes could you have done without? Why?
 - c. What would you have liked to learn that you didn't?
14. In your coursework, you were presented with some methods and strategies to use when working with ESOL students. Does anything you do in your classroom remind you of what you learned in the courses?
 - a. Did the courses make you rethink anything you were doing in your classroom?
 - b. Have you noticed any changes in the way you approach teaching ESOL students?
15. What are your future plans related to KPD? Have you finished the program? Do you have plans to finish?
 - Currently-enrolled students: Some in-service teachers have stopped taking courses or have decided to take the Praxis exam without completing the coursework? Why do you think that is? What kept you involved in the program?
 - Praxis Completers: You completed the Praxis without completing all the coursework. Why did you make this decision? What did you gain by doing this abbreviated route to endorsement? Do you feel that you lost out on some information?
16. Did any of your KPD instructors provide information about how to work with ESOL support staff (bilingual paraeducators, ESOL paraeducators, and ESOL teachers)? Have you changed how you work with them since enrolling in KPD?
17. Classroom observations were part of KPD project. How many times were you observed in the classroom by KPD instructors or staff? What did you learn from that experience? What would you change to make it more meaningful for you?
18. How would you characterize the support you received from the administration and district in completing your ESOL endorsement? What specific things did they do to help you? In what ways could they have helped more?

Reflection

19. Just like any other project, there are strengths and weaknesses of a large educational project like this. In your opinion, what are the strengths and weaknesses of the KPD project? What could have been done differently to make it a stronger program?

20. How would you describe the nature of the relationship between the university, the school districts, and the teachers working toward their ESOL endorsement?
 - a. Some might describe this relationship as a team, in which everyone communicates and works well together. Others might describe it as a zoo, in which there is a zookeeper who takes care of everything and regulates what everyone does. How would you describe the KPD project? Can you elaborate on that idea? How does it describe your role and the relationship between the members?
21. There have been 57 in-service teachers who were a part of KPD. Of these, 10 have completed the coursework and practicum, and a total of 13 have taken the Praxis and became ESOL-endorsed. Considering these numbers and the time, resources, and effort to implement and sustain the program, do you think the project was worthwhile? Why or why not?
22. In 2008, the Kansas State Department of Education decided that teachers who successfully passing the Praxis Exam could obtain their ESOL endorsement without completing any ESOL coursework. What do you think of this decision?
 - b. What is gained and lost by allowing the endorsement by exam?
 - c. Some might say that allowing the ESOL endorsement by exam does not really help teachers or students, and is just a move to bring more money to districts. What do you think of that idea?
23. Wheat University recently received another professional development grant to help licensed teachers receive their ESOL endorsement. What advice would you give the program directors for implementing a program such as this?
24. What one question did I not ask about KPD that should I have? How would you respond to that question? Is there anything else you would like to say about the program?

Interviews with In-service Teachers Left KPD Program

Before Interview

- ☐ Do you mind if I record our conversation?
- ☐ Purpose: To understand your perspective of the KPD project and the coursework
- ☐ Informed consent
- ☐ The KPD records show that you haven't completed the program and haven't taken a course in a while. Why did you leave out of the program? Could anything have prevented you from leaving the program?

Background

1. Tell me a little bit about your professional background. How many years have you been teaching? What subject or grade level are you currently teaching?
2. Will you describe your experiences with multiculturalism and/or interacting with people of different backgrounds, cultures, languages, etc.?
 - a. Do you speak another language?
 - b. Have you taken multicultural education?
 - c. Have you lived outside of the U.S.?
 - d. Have you hosted a foreign exchange student?
 - e. Do you think these experiences helped prepare you to teach? How?
 - f. Do you feel that your race/ethnicity influences the way you teach? Can you elaborate on your response?
3. Tell me about your experiences working with ESOL students. How many ESOL students do you have in your current teaching situation?
 - d. Where are they from?
 - e.
 - f. What is their language level?
 - g. What challenges or surprises have you encountered when working with ESOL students?
4. Who is responsible for teaching ESOL students at your school? Can you describe the ESOL program at your school?
 - a. How do you work with support staff (bilingual paraeducators or ESOL paraeducators and teachers)?
5. There are many things teachers need to know to be effective teachers in the classroom. In your opinion, what do teachers who work with ESOL students need to know?
6. What does it mean for a teacher to be ESOL-endorsed? What characteristics or knowledge should ESOL-endorsed teachers have?

KPD

7. I am interested in learning about the KPD project and hearing your perspectives about it. Can you tell me why you signed up to begin the ESOL endorsement classes and be a part of the KPD project? What did you see as the benefits for you in completing the ESOL endorsement?
8. Some classroom teachers may not want to complete the ESOL endorsement because they don't want to be the "ESOL teacher" at school? Was that ever a concern for you? Have you noticed any changes to your teaching position since pursuing an ESOL endorsement?

9. There are several options for endorsement programs available to teachers in Southwest Kansas. Why did you decide to pursue an endorsement at Wheat University through the KPD project?
10. What did you expect when you enrolled in the courses? How does the program compare to your expectations?
11. I know what courses you took with KPD, but I want to know a little bit about what those courses looked like. Can you take me through a typical class session? What did you do?
 - a. Can you tell me about your interactions with the instructor and the other teachers?
 - b. How did the instructors address your questions and comments?
12. KPD courses were offered through video-conference sessions or through online courses. Describe the distance learning format of the courses you took.
 - e. What was your experience with the technology, class room dynamics and participation, technical difficulties, and scheduling?
 - f. How did the distance-learning courses compare to similar courses you have taken in terms of what you were able to learn?
 - g. How would you compare the amount of work you put into the KPD courses to similar courses?
 - h. With the distance-learning courses, did you feel like you had to adjust the way you learn or interact with other teachers or the course instructors?
13. Was the information in the courses relevant to your classroom setting? Could you apply what you learned to your classroom?
 - a. What class was most useful? Why?
 - b. What classes could you have done without? Why?
 - c. What would you have liked to learn that you didn't?
14. In your coursework, you were presented with some methods and strategies to use when working with ESOL students. Does anything you do in your classroom remind you of what you learned in the courses?
 - a. Did the courses make you rethink anything you were doing in your classroom?
 - b. Have you noticed any changes in the way you approach teaching ESOL students?
15. The KPD records show that you haven't completed the program and haven't taken a course in a while. What are your plans related to KPD? Why did you leave the program? Could anything have prevented you from leaving the program?
 - Some in-service teachers have decided to take the Praxis exam without completing the coursework? Why do you think that is?
 - Would that be something you would consider? Why or why not?
16. Did any of your KPD instructors provide information about how to work with ESOL support staff (bilingual paraeducators, ESOL paraeducators, and ESOL teachers)? Have you changed how you work with them since enrolling in KPD?
17. Classroom observations were part of KPD project. How many times were you observed in the classroom by KPD instructors or staff? What did you learn from that experience? What would you change to make it more meaningful for you?
18. How would you characterize the support you received from the administration and district in completing your ESOL endorsement? What specific things did they do to help you? In what ways could they have helped more?

Reflection

19. Just like any other project, there are strengths and weaknesses of a large educational project like this. In your opinion, what are the strengths and weaknesses of the KPD project? What could have been done differently to make it a stronger program?
20. How would you describe the nature of the relationship between the university, the school districts, and the teachers working toward their ESOL endorsement?
 - e. Some might describe this relationship as a team, in which everyone communicates and works well together. Others might describe it as a zoo, in which there is a zookeeper who takes care of everything and regulates what everyone does. How would you describe the KPD project? Can you elaborate on that idea? How does it describe your role and the relationship between the members?
21. There have been 57 in-service teachers who were a part of KPD. Of these, 10 have completed the coursework and practicum, and a total of 13 have taken the Praxis and became ESOL-endorsed. Considering these numbers and the time, resources, and effort to implement and sustain the program, do you think the project was worthwhile? Why or why not?
22. In 2008, the Kansas State Department of Education decided that teachers who successfully passing the Praxis Exam could obtain their ESOL endorsement without completing any ESOL coursework. What do you think of this decision?
 - f. What is gained and lost by allowing the endorsement by exam?
 - g. Some might say that allowing the ESOL endorsement by exam does not really help teachers or students, and is just a move to bring more money to districts. What do you think of that idea?
23. Wheat University recently received another professional development grant to help licensed teachers receive their ESOL endorsement. What advice would you give the program directors for implementing a program such as this?
24. What one question did I not ask about KPD that should I have? How would you respond to that question? Is there anything else you would like to say about the program?

Interviews with Evaluation Team

Background

1. Tell me a little bit about your professional background including your experience at Wheat University and your research interests.

Beginning of KPD

2. Can you provide an overview of KPD? How would you describe the KPD project, its goals, and its activities?
3. The KPD project started in 2007. Can you tell me about how it started?
 - a. Who was involved in writing the grant? What was Evaluation Team's role?
 - b. How did you become involved with KPD?
 - c. Can you describe Evaluation Team's motivation for working with KPD?

Implementation

4. What is Evaluation Team's role in KPD?
 - a. Can you tell me about your role in making decisions about the program? Tell me about a time when you influenced the program. Can you tell me about a time when you felt the program was moving in a direction that you didn't agree with, but had to go along with it?
5. I've been attending Evaluation Team's meetings and I've read the Evaluation Project Report, but I'd like to know how you summarize Evaluation Team's research with KPD?
 - a. How have you collected the data? Have members of Evaluation Team visited Southwest Kansas?
 - b. What are your findings?
 - c. What challenges have you had?
 - d. Have you communicated your research to Wheat University faculty members or KPD personnel? How?
 - e. Do you know if any research has been published about the KPD project? Why do you think that is?
 - f. Were you interested in conducting research with KPD? Why or why not?
6. There are many people (including other KPD faculty members, program directors, the project coordinators in Southwest Kansas, the evaluation team, school administrators, and in-service teachers) involved in the KPD project. Can you tell me about how you work with the other people in the KPD project?
7. There have been some changes in KPD program directors of the life of the grant. Will you describe the process as one person left KPD and another person assumed the responsibilities of program director? What were the advantages and disadvantages of having several program directors?
8. KPD is a five year grant and it's in its fifth year now. Describe any changes to the Evaluation Team's efforts with KPD since its implementation. What were the reasons for these changes?
 - a. How has your role changed over the course of the grant? What do you attribute these changes to?
 - b. What are the goals of the grant in the final year?

9. Evaluation Team is evaluating an English as a Second Language teacher education program and one of your areas of research has been lesson plan implementation according to the principles of SIOP. How do you feel about your abilities to evaluate the teachers?
 - a. How does the Evaluation Team do that when they are not trained in ESOL concepts?
 - b. Do you think that can be seen as problematic from perspectives of those outside?

Reflection

10. Just like any other project, there are strengths and weaknesses of a large educational project like this. In your opinion, what are the strengths and weaknesses of the KPD project? What could have been done differently to make it a stronger program?
11. How would you describe the nature of the relationship between the university, the school districts, and the teachers working toward their ESOL endorsement?
 - a. Some might describe this relationship as a team, in which everyone communicates and works well together. Others might describe it as a zoo, in which there is a zookeeper who takes care of everything and regulates what everyone does. How would you describe the KPD project? Can you elaborate on that idea? How does it describe your role and the relationship between the members?
12. There have been 57 in-service teachers who were a part of KPD. Of these, 10 have completed the coursework and practicum, and a nine more have taken the Praxis and become ESOL-endorsed. What do you think of these numbers?
 - a. Considering these numbers and the time, resources, and effort to implement and sustain the program, do you think the project was worthwhile? Why or why not?
 - b. Part of Evaluation Team's role is to evaluate the program, so how would you evaluate this program?
 - c. One of the goals of KPD is increase the number of ESOL-endorsed classroom teachers. How effective was the program in this area? Do you see any unintended successes of the program that may not necessarily have been written into the grant?
13. In 2008, the Kansas State Department of Education decided that teachers who successfully passing the Praxis Exam could obtain their ESOL endorsement without completing any ESOL coursework. What do you think of this decision?
 - b. What is gained and lost by allowing the endorsement by exam?
14. What other areas of KPD should we discuss that we haven't talked about yet?

Follow-Up Interview Protocol

Themes to Discuss

1. Motivation for Participation
 - a. Forced Participation
 - b. Forced Participation and Funding
2. Balancing Responsibilities
3. Theory and Practice
4. Distance Learning
5. District Support
6. Role of Education Center
7. Program Effectiveness

Motivation for Participation

- Would you think of any other reasons teachers might have participated in these courses?
- Put them in order to the most important to least important as reasons for your participation and explain process of ranking them. What are the connections you see between them?
- You know when I interviewed teachers before sometimes the main reasons for them taking the courses were related to their jobs or professional gains, but I know teachers care about students. Can you help me understand that?
- In my discussion with a participant, we talked about how some of these are professional motivators and to get teachers involved programs like KPD can start with these motivators, but bring them to the understanding why ESOL is important. What do you think about using motivation one and to get to motivation two?

Forced Participation

- What are your reactions to these comments?
- Teachers are forced to participate in other types of professional development, in-services, recertification, etc. is there anything different about being forced to get ESOL endorsement?
- What are potential problems when teachers are forced to participate in a program like KPD?
- Some teachers mentioned that they were resistant to the classes (didn't read the material, graded during the course, were off camera, didn't engage in class discussions). Do you think teachers might resist implementing ESOL strategies and techniques, because they were forced to participate? Do you think teachers would reject information based on their feelings toward courses?

Forced Participation and Funding

- What message does the focus on funding send to teachers about the importance of ESOL?
- How does focus on funding affect the teachers' participation in ESOL coursework?
- What is the connection between funding and ESOL endorsement?

Balancing Responsibilities

- Teachers are overloaded with responsibilities and tasks especially in small schools where they take on so many roles. Many teachers said there was no time to dedicate to these courses. But professors might respond to these comments and say that full-time students have lives too. These are graduate level courses and not an in-service. Professors made

accommodations, but they also wanted to avoid watering down the curriculum. What do you think?

- How do you found a balance of respecting teachers' responsibilities but also recognizing the graduate level coursework?

Theory and Practice

- Two main views from in-service students
 - Professors needed to make course applicable to classroom.
 - Teachers' responsibility to apply what they are learning.
- View from professors
- Show three examples of theory and practice discussion. How do you see relationship between theory and practice? What would be ideal situation?

Distance Learning

- Here are some topics that came up with I talked about the distance learning format of the ESOL courses in KPD. Can you think of other aspects of distance learning we can include?
- Would you select three topics that you think are important to discuss more? Tell me why you chose those three? Would you characterize them as positive or negative with the KPD program?
- One of the things that I am interested in is the geographical distance between the university and these schools, but I'm curious about the other types of differences? Can you think of any differences?

District Support

- What do you think of when you think about district support of KPD and of the KPD teachers? Some mention it but can't describe what ways they wanted district to support them. What would district support look like in most ideal situation?
- Some of my participants suggested that when administration knows about ESOL instruction, they can inform teachers about ESOL and provide information to them. What do you think about that? What difference does it make that administrators know about ESOL endorsement?
- Do administrators who have some training in ESOL influence or coach teachers in different way that an administrator who does not know about ESOL?

Role of SW

- What was the role of the education center in KPD?
- Can you tell me how you interacted with them?
- What did you feel was the relationship between the education center and Wheat University?

Program Effectiveness, Part 1

- What would you say would be the definition of program effectiveness for KPD?
- I observed quite a bit in the classrooms. I noticed some really great things, but I couldn't really see difference between teachers who were ESOL endorsed and had gone through all the coursework, those who had taken Praxis, and those who didn't complete the program. I couldn't really distinguish the use of language objectives and attention to language in those who were ESOL endorsed and not. So, I'm wondering does ESOL make a difference? Were there changes to instruction? Help me understand that. In interview, people said that it was important to understand culture, be more sensitive to students and their background, but they didn't see themselves as language teachers.

- Professors and administrators don't know how the program impacted the teachers, and they want to know about the program effectiveness. What would you say?
- Kreicker (2003) – 890 Kansas classroom teachers - Teachers who were motivated to complete the endorsement due to personal reasons (such as the English language learners in their classroom or school, or for future employment goals), expressed a significantly higher level of satisfaction with the endorsement experience than did teachers who were either required or encouraged by their district to complete it. Financial incentives received to complete an endorsement were found to be a negative predictor of satisfaction with the endorsement experience. How do you think that relates to KPD?

Program Effectiveness, Part 2

- Numbers of completers
- Last time we talked about KPD and the effectiveness of the program. We talked about number of completers and if you considered KPD to be a worthwhile program. I wanted to ask you about some of the hidden benefits or unintended consequences of the grant? Do you think there are any?
- Some were skeptical about the benefits of ESOL endorsement, but are there benefits that may not directly relate to teacher effectiveness or student learning? That there are still good outcomes of the grant. For example, maybe there is an increased awareness of ESOL students and their needs, greater collegiality among teachers, increased self-efficacy among teachers?

Research Significance

- When conducting research, the researcher hopes the research serves a purpose and informs us. Many times we discuss the idea that the university is theoretical and may not be practical to teachers. I would like to talk about how this research could be meaningful to you.
- What do you take this information and conversation?
- Does this study have any value to you? Do you think it has implications for teachers and administrators in Kansas?
- Why should this story be told?

Reflection

- What was the experience of interview like for you? Being a part of the research? Describe why you were willing to participate? What reservations did you have about it?
- Research leaves the participant changed. Research participation as part of professional development that offers opportunity for reflection?
- Role as graduate research assistant?

Appendix C: Researcher Involvement

A timeline of KPD and a description of my activities as a graduate research assistant (GRA) demonstrate the extent of my involvement with the grant. The KPD application for the National Professional Grant project was submitted in the spring of 2007 and the award was announced the following fall. In-service teachers for cohort one were recruited and coursework began in the spring of 2008. I joined KPD as a GRA in the spring of 2010, and in the fall of 2010, I wrote an initial research proposal to study the perceptions of the in-service teachers regarding their experiences with KPD. For my first three semesters as a GRA, I helped TESOL instructors prepare materials, grade assignments, and navigate the technology for both videoconferencing and online courses. I made my first trip to Southwest in the spring of 2011 with a university instructor and another graduate research assistant to observe teachers enrolled in the TESOL practicum. In the fall of 2011 and spring of 2012, a program director, a GRA, and I revised the practicum syllabus and made two trips to Southwest Kansas to supervise in-service teachers.

In the spring of 2011, I began working on administrative tasks with KPD, such as updating student progress information and communicating with KPD stakeholders at the university and in Southwest Kansas. I worked with the KPD staff to discuss the direction of KPD, assist with enrolling teachers in classes, provide course information to teachers, gather data and course syllabi for the evaluation team, and provide feedback on briefs and reports. Under the supervision of program directors, I have also written annual reports and the final report for the purposes of demonstrating progress toward meeting the stated objectives of the grant.

In 2011, I expanded my research focus to include not only the perspectives of teachers but also those of university instructors, program evaluators, program directors, school

administrators, project coordinators, and ESOL coordinators. I received Human Subjects Approval in October of 2011, began the interviews and observations in Southwest Kansas that November, and continued data collection throughout the spring and summer of 2012. The process of transcribing interviews, analyzing the data, and writing followed.

It is obvious given my chosen path of study and position within a teacher professional development program that I support the premise that teachers need to know how to work with ELs and that they benefit from formal learning about language, culture, the processes of second language acquisition, and the strategies and techniques that benefit ELs' acquisition of English. Moreover, I come to the research with certain assumptions, and the participants in my study were potentially aware of these assumptions by virtue of my association with this particular field of study. The participants, especially the in-service teachers, might have been reluctant to express negative views about ESOL education and its relevance to their classroom or may have given what they perceived to be socially accepted responses to the interview questions rather than state their true feelings. To counter this, I followed the recommendations of Rubin and Rubin (2005) and I strived to create a safe and non-judgmental environment and I avoided advocating a certain position while talking with participants.

Moreover, I must address the fact that the university professors involved in the KPD program have contributed to my own education of ESOL concepts. Their perspectives and theoretical orientations have, therefore, indirectly shaped this research design. Now, I am in the position to analyze their perspectives of the program, but from the theoretical perspectives that they have encouraged me to develop. In essence, they are at the same time informing the research design, acting as participants in the research, and evaluating the product. The blurred line between my researcher and student roles was particularly apparent as several instructors

gave me advice during the interview about the data collection process and volunteered feedback about the interview questions. This is a complex relationship, yet by disclosing this information, I hope to address the issue and expose any potential biases.

Another potential disadvantage of studying a program in which I had been involved so intimately relates to power differentials and dynamics, and there are several potential concerning relationships that should be brought under examination. First, I had evaluated the work of and scored assignments for 19 of the 36 in-service teachers I interviewed. It is possible that they saw me with a certain amount of authority, and I recognize that my position may have influenced what the teachers felt comfortable sharing with me. It's conceivable that they might not have wanted to criticize the project, instructors, or courses in front of me because of my perceived position of power.

The effect of the potential power differential might also have been lessened by the fact that most of the in-services teachers were interviewed after they had completed or stopped taking KPD courses. At the time of the interviews, only three teachers were enrolled in a course that I had an evaluative role. Furthermore, I did not assign the teachers' final grades and was not the sole evaluator for any course. As an indicator that my authority was not a barrier to teachers' willingness to express their true opinions, the teachers who I had not worked with prior to the study responded in similar ways to the teachers whose assignments I had evaluated. Moreover, in teachers may themselves have had advantages in other regards, such as their age, experience in education, and the fact that our meetings were held in their classrooms or other spaces of their choosing (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Rubin & Rubin, 1995). These factors may have diminished whatever advantage I may have had due to my previous position as an evaluator. Lastly, I took the potential threat into consideration by asking participants to reflect on their experience of

being involved in my research, how they saw my dual role as a graduate research assistant and researcher, and if and how it influenced their responses. In general, teachers said they felt comfortable during the interviews and that the established relationship actually helped them share their experiences. Teachers said they were honest in their interviews as I was in a position to “see both sides,” their perspectives as teachers and those of instructors (Teacher E1, Teacher E2, Teacher E7). They reported feeling comfortable talking with me because I had helped out with the program and answered their questions (Teacher E3) and because I had graded their assignments, I knew “a lot of [their] attitudes, feelings, and beliefs going into this” (Teacher D2). A teacher viewed me as neither “pro-KPD nor negative-KPD” but rather as someone just “trying to see what was working” (Teacher F4).

Second, the complex nature of my dual role as a GRA and researcher was particularly salient in the relationships with KPD program directors. In my capacity as a GRA, the program directors guided and supervised the work I did; however, this study was conducted independently without their oversight. At times, these roles were blurred as directors tried to shape the research. For example, during an interview a program director encouraged me to focus on the unintended benefits or unmeasurable outcomes of the grant, rather than on the number of in-service teachers who successfully completed the program. She advised me about how to present the numbers, how to talk about the grant, and how to write up my findings. The interaction illustrates the complicated and multi-faceted relationship between the research participant/supervisor and researcher/employee.

Because of my work with the grant, I was keenly aware that directors had have a vested interest in representing the program in a certain light and might highlight positive aspects of the program rather describe the program fully. Research with “elite” participants can be complicated

as participants are “people who are used to exercising power and influence” challenges (Arksey & Knight, 1999, p.122). Research with elite participants can offer challenges such as negotiating access, managing the interview, not being about to ask tough questions, and having them present a response that has been professionally polished (Arksey & Knight; Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

When conducting, transcribing, and analyzing the interviews with the KPD program directors, I became more aware of the fact that they were elite participants as evidenced by their education and position. They had a vested interest in making KPD a productive and positive program regardless of the reality, and they wanted to make the working relationships between the grant stakeholders appear to be positive and efficient, so as to allow for future partnerships. I was especially aware of this while I conducted and transcribed one project director’s interview in which she avoided questions or phrased things differently than she did during KPD meetings or during informal meetings with me. I attempted to gather more information from the participant and asked about previous conversations or events; some responses began to reflect a richer complexity of the KPD experience, but others did not. By interviewing all of the KPD directors and checking the interview data with other data sources (Arksey & Knight), I feel I was able to address this potential threat to validity. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that through prolonged engagement, persistent observation, and triangulation, the researcher “is in a better position to uncover and appreciate the half-truths or falsehoods that respondents supply” (p. 231). Additionally, by highlighting these challenges, I aim to make the research process transparent and explicit.

During the interviews with the program directors, I asked them to reflect on participating in the study with me and how they viewed their role as both a research participant and supervisor. Directors said they were honest in the interviews and provided the information they

could. The program directors' responses indicate that my dual position and history with the grant may have been beneficial in yielding rich interview data. During the interviews with the program directors, I asked them to reflect on participating in the study with me and how they viewed their role as both a research participant and supervisor. Directors said they were honest in the interviews and provided the information they could. The program directors' responses indicate that my dual position and history with the grant may have been beneficial in yielding rich interview data. One admitted that "I think anybody sitting in this chair is going to um think about long—longer term consequences to words they choose" but that she probably provided more information to me than she would have to someone else because of my established relationship to the program and the program staff (Director 6). A director said she could be "pretty straight" with me because her job was not dependent on criticizing or praising the program (Director 1) and another stated that my dual position allowed for a shared understanding of the program and he would have been "more resistant to filling in some of the details" with an outsider to the program (Director 2). The program directors' responses indicate that my dual position and history with the grant may have been beneficial in yielding rich interview data.

Appendix D: Researcher Memos

In a personal narrative about reflexivity during a study, novice researcher Watt (2007) reveals segments of her own reflexive journals and discusses them in relation to becoming a qualitative researcher. Before she began her study, she recognized that many qualitative researchers agree about the importance of reflexivity, but she admitted, “as a new researcher I had little idea what this meant in concrete terms” (p. 82). I, too, felt that I did not have a good grasp of what researchers do when they think about reflexivity in their work. In articles and dissertations, the researchers often say that they kept researcher memos or examined their biases through journaling, but they fail to give a complete picture about that process in practice. As a reader, I wanted to know exactly what they chose to write about, how they managed their memos, or how often they wrote. I will describe the process of writing memos and what I learned from engaging in such a reflective experience.

Qualitative researchers agree that reflection is necessary at every stage of research, including selecting a research topic, forming research questions, interviewing, and writing (Davies et al., 2004; Guillemin & Gillam, 2004). Lincoln & Guba (1985) suggest that three components make up the reflexive memos: a record of the schedule and logistics of the study, a personal diary in which the researcher reflects on the research, and a log that details methodological decisions and the rationale behind them. Maxwell (2005) extends the idea of researcher memos to include “any writing that a researcher does in relationship to the research other than actual field notes, transcription, or coding” (p. 12). Throughout this research process, I attempted to follow the recommendations of these researchers in writing researcher memos.

Process

I actively reflected on my research throughout the entire research experience. During the initial stage of designing the research and writing the proposal, as I read literature related to my research, I summarized the articles and noted each article related to KPD. I wrote about what I learned from the research design, analysis, or findings that would shape the KPD research. For example, after reading an article by Gitlin, Buendía, Crosland and Doumbia's (2003), I wrote: "Research Relevance: Researchers found that teachers felt a lack of practical application of the ESL endorsement training. What do teachers in the KPD program feel about their training? Did the program give them practical ideas about what to do in the classroom?" (Researcher Memos, June 24, 2011). These initial notes helped guide me as I drafted questions for the interviews.

I continued the researcher memos when collecting and analyzing the data. I started writing researcher memos by hand, but I found the process to be slow and taxing. Then I created a computer template that I could fill out each day about my research activity and future steps and questions, but I quickly learned that this method was a bit too overwhelming and time-consuming. The method that worked best for me was a simple word processing document where I could write a paragraph or two describing my current thoughts about my research. I labeled my entries with the date and a short descriptive title, and created a table of contents for these memos. This method of keeping the researcher memos was simple and allowed for flexibility and easy retrieval of information. By the end of the dissertation, I had over 200 single-spaced pages of researcher memos.

I also kept a research notebook where I jotted down information about participants as I was thinking about the different teacher categories, such as completer status, cohorts, or districts. I created concept maps for each group of stakeholders listing their principal roles, concerns, and

interactions, and I drew a mind map of the KPD case study showing the relationships among participants and outside variables. Some of these visual representations were used in the final draft to make the relationships clear (Miles & Huberman, 1984).

Researcher Memos Topics

I used the researcher memos to organize my thoughts and questions about the emerging themes and categories. Watt (2007) discusses the benefit of “getting ideas down when they occur is actually the beginning of the analysis” and that writing notes allows researchers to discover things they might not have been aware of (p. 83). I find this to be true. I had lots of thoughts about KPD that may have evaporated in my mind had I not been writing them down. I also found that writing down my thoughts brought about new discoveries. As I wrote, I thought about new connections and interpretations, and the process of writing the researcher memos brought clarity to the project.

Through transcribing and coding the data, I began to see common themes in the participants’ responses which I explored further in the researcher memos. For example, I noticed that many in-service teachers mentioned health, family, and personal challenges as reasons they did not continue with the KPD courses. I wrote about some of the challenges and connected it to a comment by a participant who said that in-service teachers were at a different stage of life from traditional pre-service students and had more personal responsibilities. In the memos, I also noted differences I was hearing in the data; I explored the differences in participants’ interview responses and their actions, differences between the original grant and the program implementation, or varying perspectives of stakeholders about the same topic. Many of the topics I initially explored in the researcher memos became the codes I used later on.

Watt (2007) notes that about halfway through the data collection period, she began to panic about whether she was gathering the right data for her research (p. 92). Watt reported that writing in journals allowed her to step back and evaluate the quality of the data she was collecting. Like Watt, I sometimes felt the panic about my data. I have questioned if anything I was learning would be important, or unique, or interesting enough to tell to my committee and any other potential readers. By writing and reviewing the researcher memos I could see emerging themes and I could think about questions I needed to answer.

Throughout the research experience I reflected on my position as researcher. I analyzed how my dual position as researcher and graduate research assistant may have influenced participants' responses. The memos allowed me space to think about the characteristics of researcher and participants that seemed to be at play during the interviews. In broad terms, I reflected on the different ways I tried to build rapport with teachers based on their different life stages. Specifically, I noted several situations where one teacher said she had been in education "longer than I had been alive" and another said that I did not look old enough to be married. In addition, I noted that several teachers asked about my experiences working in public schools; I explored how they examined my credibility through the lens of their own experiences.

Reflexivity in qualitative research serves as way to address "ethics in practice" (what to do in the field when unexpected situations arise) and the researcher places their research and their interactions with participants under scrutiny (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004). I used the researcher memos as a way to reflect on my researcher assumptions and bias, potential bias when working with particular participants, and decisions related to transcribing, coding, and presenting the data. Watt (2007) mentioned that she increasingly became aware of the gravity of participant issues. Like Watt, I also became more conscious of participants' roles within their given contexts

and how the research could impact participants' ability to work with each other. I admittedly began the KPD research thinking there would not be many controversial issues or so many ethical decisions to make about a teacher professional development program. I was surprised when someone was not willing to participate in the research, and others seemed guarded in their responses. I didn't really think I would run into these types of issues in my research with KPD. By reflecting on these issues and my decisions in the researcher memos, I was more aware of the implications of my decisions and how they could influence my findings. In order to enhance the trustworthiness, transparency, and accountability of my work (Finlay, 2002), I have attempted to make many of these decisions and my role as both researcher and graduate research transparent.

In the researcher memos, I also explored my journey of becoming a qualitative researcher as I wrote about how I felt about the research process and my progress. For example, I wrote:

As I listen to the interviews with in-service teachers, I'm reminded of the intense schedule that I had when I was conducting interviews in Southwest Kansas. The first time I went down there I interviewed 19 people and observed in classrooms. It was a very intense schedule, and I remember feeling pretty tired. At the end of the day, I was ready to just be quiet and not talk to anyone. Now that I am hearing the interviews again, I remember and can hear on the recording that several times I almost forgot what town I was in. (Researcher Memos, June 15, 2012)

I also wrote about my growing anxiety about completing the dissertation amidst other responsibilities. I have consecutive entries in the researcher memos entitled; reports for progress and plans, dissertation progress, life happens, maintaining some semblance of control, frustration with progress, self-confidence, perseverance, routine of writing, and using your time (Researcher Memos, August 2 – 3, 2012). Reflecting on my feelings about the research process helped me

realize the times when I felt overwhelmed and intimidated by the next step. After reading about the experiences of other novice qualitative researchers (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) and reflecting on my feelings, I proceeded with the research.

Glesne and Peshkin (1991) believe reflection is very crucial to a beginner researcher. I found that to be true of my experience as well. I have learned so much from taking the time to think about the research and reflect on the process. While the experience of writing memos has been beneficial both to me, as a researcher, and to the final product, it required a lot of time. For example, earlier in the researcher I felt pressed to finish all my transcriptions, but instead I found myself reflecting on the importance of reflecting and what I've gained from the experience. I wrote:

Writing the memos is helpful for me to get me on track, but also not to get too overwhelmed by the experience. It allows me to step back and think about the dissertation experience. On one hand the researcher memos help me enjoy the process more, but on the other hand, I wonder if they generate a little bit more anxiety because I'm more aware of my feelings and thoughts about the dissertation. Perhaps I wouldn't realize some of the difficult times of being a qualitative researcher if I didn't write about them. It's possible, though, that I would still have the difficult times as a researcher and feel anxious about them because I wouldn't be working to recognize, name, and resolve them. (Researcher Memos, August 24, 2012)

Although writing researcher memos was time-consuming and at times frustrating, this in-depth practice of reflexivity has allowed me to be transparent about the research process while also leading me to new insights.

Appendix E: Funding Sources

During my research with KPD, I received financial support from the Institute that managed the KPD program. It supported me with some of expenses to travel to Southwest Kansas (such as lodging, food, and mileage). Although the Institute provided funds for the research, directors did not decide how the funds were to be spent, KPD directors or instructors did not decide or even know which KPD participants with whom I conducted interviews, and they did not review any of the data collected. Some of the members of the Institute recognized research on KPD would help strength the relationship with the in-service teachers and provide information about the program. In addition to the financial support from the Institute, I also received funding from the School of Education Graduate Research and Travel Fund, the Office of Graduate Studies, and KU Women 4 KU Women Fund.

Appendix F: Methodological Decisions

I transcribed the interviews participants using HyperTRANSCRIBE, a software program that allows the researcher to use shortcut keys on the keyboard to pause and play the interview recording. In transcribing, I attempted to portray the participants' responses verbatim with pauses, interruptions, and repetitive words and phrases. False starts, pauses, stutters can indicate that the participants are having trouble articulating a point; they may be trying to avoid a question or make their response seem more socially acceptable (Kvale, 1996). Because there is meaning related to some pauses, interruptions, and false starts, and I attempted to include them when transcribing the interviews. However, I recognize that transcriptions are a construction of reality and that I as the researcher make principled decisions on how to represent the participants' responses (Kvale, 1996). After transcribing the interviews, I checked the transcriptions for accuracy and revised them when necessary. Not correcting for grammar or word usage, I represented the participants' speech in this write-up in the way I transcribed them.

Though many qualitative researchers are committed to the paper and pencil method of coding data, computer-assisted data processing can help the researcher with managing and organizing the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I used HyperRESEARCH mainly as a text management tool in which I created a list of the codes and applied them to the text. The program allows the researcher to organize the material by code names and divide the codes into categories and subcategories. Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that with computer-assisted programs, "The implications of the word 'assist' should not be lost on the reader; the programs do not draw inferences, but simply arrange or display the material in ways that aid the inquirer to make interpretations" (pp. 352-353). I had never used computer-assisted software for previous qualitative research projects, and in using it for this study, I learned it was beneficial to view all

the source material associated with particular codes. I could examine the data within a code to analyze and establish clear boundaries for each code. HyperRESEARCH allowed me to see where there was overlap in the codes and to make decisions about whether the codes could be combined, separated, or refined. The software allowed me to examine the material and constantly compare it to other data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The initial investment of learning to use the software was worth the time and energy I saved later in the writing process.